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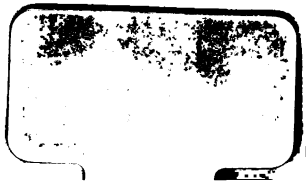

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THE MUSEUM.

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THE MUSEUM

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THE MUSEUM.

APRIL 1863.

I.—PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

It is not a very rash or improbable conclusion to suppose that the readers of *The Museum* never heard of worthy Philemon Purmont or respected Daniel Maude. And yet these good men are not undeserving that their names should be recorded in a journal devoted to the subject of education, for they were the earliest public schoolmasters who swayed the ferule in the State of Massachusetts. It is just two hundred and twenty-eight years since the Pilgrim Fathers of Boston entreated Philemon to undertake "the teaching and nourtering" of their children. And by way of remuneration they assigned him thirty fair acres of land by the Muddy River. Here, it may be supposed, he diligently plied axe and spade in the intervals of school-work, and taught wheat and pulse as well as young ideas to shoot.

As for Daniel Maude, it appears that in acknowledgment of his services as "schoolmaster," a plot of garden-ground was about the same time bestowed upon him, where, no doubt, he loved to expatiate, talking of "*mea paupera regna*," and, like Virgil's old man of Corycus, *Regum æquabat opes animis*. So early was some provision for public education made in the brave old Puritan Commonwealth. Of not much later date, indeed, is the beginning of something like a system of compulsory education, for in 1642 the General Court of the colony "enjoined upon the municipal authorities the duty of seeing that every child within their respective jurisdictions should be educated."

Five years afterwards another most important step in advance was taken, a step which was the necessary and logical sequel of the edict of 1642. In 1647, a law was passed requiring every town containing fifty householders to appoint a teacher, "to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read;" and every town containing 100 families or householders was required "to set up a grammar school," whose master should be "able to instruct youth so far as they

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may be fitted for the university." Penalties were imposed for non-compliance with the requirements of this law. Such was the origin of the free-school system of Massachusetts. When this law was passed, the population of the colony was not much above 20,000. The settlers were still struggling with the hardships and difficulties of their new home. The solemn shades of the mighty forest still waved deep and dense over their scattered dwellings. The stealthy Indian still prowled round their settlements, and watched with a jealous eye the ever extending area of the white man's occupation.

But true to their free and generous instincts, they were resolved that their children should be trained to self-government and independent thought. Hence they were careful from the very first to make provision that learning might not, as they said, "be buried in the graves of their forefathers in church and commonwealth." And accordingly the system inaugurated by the law of 1647 has ever since been maintained; has grown with the growth and strengthened with the strength of the State; is recognised as one of its vital forces; as a fundamental and essential element of its constitution. Of this system, as it now exists and is provided for by the revised statutes of the Commonwealth, we propose to give some account.

The friends of education in England may possibly have learnt to look with distrust and dislike on American educational systems. But they will not be unwilling to have set before them a sober and impartial view of the particular system which is in operation in one of the most enlightened and civilized states of the Union, and to be furnished with an estimate of its advantages and defects, drawn not from the cursory observation of travellers, or the *à priori* conclusions of theorists, but from the expressed opinions of those who are practically concerned in its working. The attention of Englishmen is at present sadly and closely fixed on America. Whatever be our political faith or our personal bias, we cannot regard unmoved the spectacle of a great and kindred nation shaken with such a terrible and internecine convulsion. We cannot read, without something of distrust in the future destinies of our race, of those "*bella plusquam civilia*" which are desolating a region fairer than those Æmathian plains of which the Roman poet sang. It is no ungrateful task, therefore, which will enable us to avert our minds for a short time from the contemplation of existing evils, and to turn our attention to those agencies which, rightly used, may be fruitful of better hopes for the future.

The reader then must, in the first place, understand that throughout Massachusetts a free, comprehensive, public education is provided by the State for the children of all classes of citizens. It is indeed optional with the citizens whether they will avail themselves of this provision or not, but it is not optional with them to give their children an education or to leave them without one. If they do not send them to the public schools, they must either have them taught at home, or send them to private academies. This State law expressly enjoins that "every person having under his control a child between the ages of eight and fourteen years shall annually, during the continuance of

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his control, send such child to some public school in the city or town in which he resides, at least twelve weeks, if the public schools of such city or town so long continue, six weeks of which time shall be consecutive." Penalties attach to neglect of this duty, unless it can be made to appear that "such child has been otherwise furnished with the means of education for a like period of time, or has already acquired the branches of learning taught in the public schools." The difficulty of effectually carrying out a law like this in a free country is obvious enough, and it is not to be supposed that the practice rises to the full level of the theory. How the law actually works may perhaps be seen when we come to speak of the character and conditions of the school attendance. The formal public recognition of the importance of education is at all events worth something, and if in a country whose institutions are so completely democratic, education is more necessary to the national wellbeing than it is elsewhere, this necessity is undoubtedly very fairly appreciated by the people of New England. Starting then with the principle that every rational creature born into the world has an inalienable right to as much education as shall enable him to fill a respectable place in it, and maintaining that an obligation rests on society to provide this education through its political organization, by making the cost of it a permanent charge on property, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has gradually matured the system now about to be described.

The entire area of the State is divided into 334 towns or cities. These differ very much from each other in extent and population, for the reader must not associate with the term city or town, as applied to them, the exact notion conveyed by the term in England. Such places as Boston, Lowell, and Salem, are indeed towns both in the English and in the American sense of the word, but when Hull, Roxburgh, and Montgomery, containing populations of two or three hundred, are so designated, the idea which the term conveys is rather *parochial* than *civic*. In fact some of these *towns* are inhabited by a scattered population spread over an area of many square miles.

Now the law requires that in every town there shall be kept, for at least six months in each year, at the expense of the said town, by a teacher or teachers of competent ability and good morals, a sufficient number of schools for the instruction of all the children who may legally attend public school therein, in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, the history of the United States, and good behaviour." Moreover, it is provided that in every town containing five hundred families or households, there shall also be maintained for the benefit of all the inhabitants a school of a higher grade, where those subjects shall be taught which we in England regard as proper for a sound middle-class education.

Lastly, in towns containing a population of 4000 there must be established a high school of the first grade, where Greek, Latin, French, and all the elements of a classical education are required to be taught.

Thus it will be seen that the educational system of the Commonwealth undertakes to provide for all the work that is done by all the

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varieties of our English schools, from Eton or Rugby, on the one hand, to the humblest village school on the other. That the work is altogether as well done we do not assert or believe. The fact seems to be that the education given in the Massachusetts high schools is, though often embracing a wide range of subjects, inferior in soundness, thoroughness, and depth to that obtainable in our best public and grammar schools, while the middle-class education is decidedly better than with us, and the elementary perhaps on the average about as good, though, it must be confessed, apparently more successful in imparting to the greatest possible number the arts of reading and writing.

It must be borne in mind, then, that in the complete system, as provided for in the Revised Statutes, there are three gradations of schools: (1.) The Primary, (2.) The Grammar School, (3.) The High School. In the practical working of the system, however, intermediate gradations have been introduced, under the designation of *alphabet* and *middle* or *intermedial*.

The following extract from the report of Mr. Abner Phipps, superintendent of the New Bedford Schools, describes the system as it is carried out in that town and probably in many others:—

"Our schools, as at present organized, have a fourfold classification. The lowest in rank, but first in importance, are our *Primary* schools. These are designed for children between the ages of five and nine years, and in their instruction, with eminent propriety, females are exclusively employed. . . . The *Intermedial* schools constitute the next grade. These are designed for children between the ages of seven and twelve years, who have satisfactorily passed through the course of instruction pursued in the primary schools. . . . The third grade includes our *Grammar* schools. The minimum age for entering there is fixed at ten years, and those admitted to them must have passed a satisfactory examination in the studies pursued in the preceding grade. In addition to the studies previously begun in the intermedial, and here continued, the pupils pursue the study of grammar, history of the United States, anatomy and physiology, with a homœopathic dose of moral science weekly administered from the 'Manual of Morals.' They *may* also here enter upon the study of book-keeping, algebra, and geometry. Through this prescribed routine of more advanced instruction, they are carried forward until the period when, if they are twelve years old—the prescribed minimum age—and can pass a satisfactory examination in the studies pursued in the grammar schools, exclusive of the last-named *optional* studies, they can be admitted into the *High* school, which constitutes our fourth and highest grade. Here the curriculum embraces the usual variety of more advanced studies, including a 'Classical Course,' designed by the Committee to give a thorough preparation for any New England College, to such as desire to avail themselves of it."

It must be added that two adjacent townships, containing fewer than 500 families each, may unite for the purpose of establishing a high school of the second grade; and in like manner, two townships, containing together not more than 4000 people, may combine for the establishment of a high school of the first grade.

Moreover, towns are allowed to be divided into districts for educational purposes, and each district is, for such purposes, constituted by law a body corporate. The district system, however, has been condemned by many as unfavourable to the best interests of education, and a recent Act of the Legislature has provided for its ultimate abolition.

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We have, in the next place, to see from what sources a revenue for the maintenance of this system of schools is obtained.

Local taxation, then, is the main fountain of supply. The inhabitants of the towns are required, at their annual meetings, "to raise such sums of money for the support of schools as they judge necessary; which sums shall be assessed and collected in like manner as other town-taxes." It is, of course, conceivable that a town may, under the impulse of short-sighted parsimony, or some other disturbing cause, neglect or refuse to make the necessary financial provision. For such a contingency the law has a sufficient remedy. Any towns guilty of this dereliction of duty, "shall forfeit a sum equal to twice the highest sum ever before voted for the support of schools therein."

The reader will have some notion of the extent to which it is found necessary to enforce this law, and also of the degree in which the citizens of the State appreciate the advantages of education, when he is told that the appropriations made by the towns in the year 1860 amounted, in the aggregate, to a sum four times as large as would have been sufficient to satisfy the legal requirement.

But the schools enjoy another source of income supplementary to local taxation. There is what is called "The Massachusetts School-Fund." This is an appropriation made by the State Legislature by an Act passed in the year 1834. The capital was derived from the sale of lands in the State of Maine, and from the claims of Massachusetts on the Government of the United States for military services.

It yields an annual revenue of about 95,000 dollars, and of this sum one half is distributed among the cities and towns, in proportion to the number of children in each between the ages of five and fifteen years. No town, however, is entitled to receive any share of this grant, unless it raises, by local taxation, for purposes of education, at least one dollar and fifty cents for every child between the aforesaid ages belonging to it.

This system of a grant-in-aid to assist local effort, will strike the reader as similar in some respects to the plan proposed by the Education Commissioners of this country, whereby schools were to be supported by county-rates, with supplementary grants from the Consolidated Fund, under the administration of the Committee of Council on Education.

In the opinion of those conversant with the State education system, and intimately concerned in its working, the establishment of this Fund has been a most important and most beneficial measure. It has supplied a healthy stimulus to local effort. It has, as we shall presently see, given a reason for some sort of central action and supervision, and furnished the means of carrying them out. It has consequently led to a very marked improvement in the state of education throughout the Commonwealth.

Before entering, however, on the subject of central interference and control, it will be proper to give some account of the local management.

This, then, is vested in school committees elected by the inhabitants at the annual town meetings. The number of persons of which a

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school committee must consist is fixed at three, or a multiple of three, and each member holds office for three years, the arrangement being such that one-third of the whole body retires annually.

The statute declares that the school committees "shall have the general charge and superintendence of all the public schools in town." This delegation of trust includes everything that we understand by the term "management." The committee engage and dismiss teachers, admit or reject pupils, visit and examine the schools, decide upon the text-books to be adopted, provide for repairs, sufficiency of apparatus, new buildings, and whatever else is necessary for the efficient working of the institutions.

Where a town is "districted," the law requires the appointment of what is called a "prudential committee" for each district. Such a committee generally consists of only one person, who serves as a kind of agent of the school-committee of the town. His duty is to keep the district school-house in order, to see after the provision of all things necessary for the convenience and comfort of the scholars, and in certain cases, and under certain conditions, to select and contract with the teachers. As the district system has been regarded by many as objectionable and disadvantageous to the progress of education, so difficulties have sometimes arisen between the school committees and the prudential committees. The latter have sometimes incurred the charge of nepotism or partiality in the selection of teachers, and now, by a statute passed, I believe, in 1860, the actual appointment of the teachers rests with the school committees of the towns.

These committees are, moreover, empowered by law, on the requirement of their town or city, to appoint a superintendent, with such a salary as the city government or town may determine. The functions of this officer very closely resemble those of an inspector of schools in England or Scotland. He is required to visit the schools, to examine the classes, and make a report to the committee, and to be ready with his advice and co-operation in all matters connected with education in the township. He is, in short, the representative of the committee, and does the work which devolves upon it when no such officer is appointed. In large and populous places, where the schools are numerous and the organization complicated, it is an unquestionable advantage to place them under the supervision of one guiding and forming mind.

We have now to consider the *central agencies* by which unity, activity, and method are infused into the work of education throughout the State. These agencies, it must be observed, are of very modern introduction. It was not till the year 1837 that any department of the State Government was intrusted with the duty of specially watching over the interests of education. Previous to that date the local authorities were left very much to themselves as regards the management of the schools which the law required them to maintain. Hence their responsibilities were often very imperfectly discharged. In too many places the school-houses were unsuitable for their purpose, ill-contrived, ill-ventilated, in bad repair, sometimes even in a ruinous condition. The teachers were incompetent, untrained, often unsatisfactory in a

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moral point of view. But some twenty-five or thirty years ago a sort of revival began to take place. The establishment of the school fund described above assisted in bringing about a material change for the better. The appointment of a State Board of Education, which took place in 1837, especially contributed to effect a reformation, or rather led to a complete revolution in the educational condition of the country.

This Board of Education is a central body, established by the Legislature, and may be regarded as corresponding in some respects to our Committee of the Privy-Council. Indeed, it deserves to be noticed, that this educational revival in Massachusetts, is very nearly contemporaneous with the increased efforts made in this country, and with the first beginnings of direct State interference in the work of National Education in England.

The Massachusetts Board of Education, then, consists of ten persons. Of these the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor of the State are members *ex officio*. The remaining eight are appointed by the Governor, on the nomination of the Council. They hold office for eight years, but the arrangements are such that a vacancy takes place yearly. Their duties are, to prepare and lay before the Legislature an abstract of the school returns, which (since 1826) have by law been required from all the towns and districts; to prescribe the forms of such returns, and also of the registers kept in the various schools; to administer the school fund in conformity with the terms of its appropriation; to present annually a report of the progress of education in the Commonwealth, and to offer practical suggestions for its improvement and extension. They are assisted by a secretary of their own appointment, whose duties are various and important, including some which we should regard as attaching to the office of inspector of schools. The secretary is, in fact, the real author of the annual report, and the preparation of the abstracts of returns, etc., necessarily devolves upon him. But he is also expected to collect all the information he can with regard to the schools, to investigate improved methods of teaching, to collect and exhibit in his office the most approved apparatus and text-books, to attend teachers' meetings, and to visit the towns in rotation, and confer with their school committees.

It may be mentioned that the first secretary appointed was Mr. Horace Mann, well known by name in this country, on account of the part which he took in preparing the Census Returns for 1851.

The Board is further empowered to appoint one or more agents, whose duties are thus described in the Revised Statutes. They are "to visit the several towns and cities for the purpose of inquiring into the condition of the schools, conferring with teachers and committees, lecturing upon subjects connected with education, and, in general, of giving and receiving information upon subjects connected with education, in the same manner as the secretary might do if he were present."

The following is a brief account of the way in which the duties of these agents have actually been carried out:—

"During the last two years, it has been the custom for the agents

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to spend a day in each town visited. The forenoon, when practicable, is devoted to an examination of schools; in the afternoon, the agent holds a meeting, upon the plan of a teachers' institute, for the purpose of conference with teachers and committees, and the presentation and illustration of methods of instruction; and in the evening, the agent delivers a lecture upon the general subject of education."

It remains to speak of the arrangements and organization whereby the services of a body of able and efficient teachers are secured for the State Schools.

And first in order must be mentioned the Normal or Training Colleges.

Of these there are four, situated respectively at Framingham, Westfield, Bridgewater, and Salem. The schools at Framingham and Salem are devoted to the training of schoolmistresses only; those at Westfield and Bridgewater admit pupils of both sexes.

And here it may be remarked, that female teachers are much more extensively employed in Massachusetts than with us. As has already been instanced, the primary schools in some towns are altogether under the charge of mistresses.

The people of New England believe that, as a rule, women have more natural aptitude for teaching than men; that the younger children, at all events, are better intrusted to female care and nurture; and that, by giving the preference to women, they secure not only a more economical, but a more efficient instrument for the work of education.

It is probably true also that the many openings which exist for educated male labour tend greatly to limit the supply of competent teachers of the stronger sex, and make the more general employment of schoolmistresses in some sort a necessity.

But there is, moreover, a preference for the plan of *mixed* schools. In the State-education reports, mention is frequently made of the amalgamation of a boys' and a girls' school, and decided opinions are expressed of the beneficial effects, in a moral and social point of view, resulting from this union of the sexes, and their education in one establishment. To return, however, to the training colleges, it may be interesting to give some account of their organization.

The staff consists of a Principal and Assistants, whose salaries are paid by the State. Pupils are admitted by examination, and, if males, must not be less than seventeen, if females, not less than sixteen years of age. They are of course required to produce good recommendations and testimonials as to character, and, if they engage to serve in the public schools of the Commonwealth, they receive their training gratuitously. They do not, however, reside in the institution, but must find board and lodging for themselves, at their own expense, in the neighbouring town or village. A certain number of State scholarships are appropriated, to aid the training of promising candidates for the office of teacher in the high schools of the Commonwealth. These scholarships are not connected with the normal schools, but entitle the holder to a free education at a State university. In connexion

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with them, the following system prevails. The State is politically divided into senatorial districts. These districts are arranged into four classes of ten sections each, and each of these classes is entitled, once in four years, to one scholarship for each of its sections. Thus, the school committees have the opportunity, from time to time, of selecting candidates from their own section of the State, and of obtaining for them a scholarship available at any college which the pupil may prefer.

The value of the scholarship is $100, but in order to entitle the student to claim payment of it, he must, at the end of the year, present a certificate, to show not only that he has been in attendance at some college, but that *he ranks in the first half of his class with respect to attainments.* The money is paid to himself, and is at his own disposal to provide for the cost of maintenance during his attendance on the college. State scholars are expected to enter into an engagement to serve for some time in the public high schools, and they are regarded as under an obligation to refund the amount of their scholarships if they abandon their calling, or seek employment as teachers in any other State of the Union.

In like manner, all pupils of the normal schools are required to repay to the Government the cost of their tuition, if they do not carry out their engagement to serve in the schools of the Commonwealth.

The minimum term of residence recognised for graduation in a normal school is one year. Pupils are occasionally admitted to the benefits of the institution for a shorter period, and some are induced to continue their studies through part or the whole of a second year. Complaints are made of the unwillingness of many students to remain at the normal school even for so short a period as one year; they do not seem in many cases sufficiently to appreciate the advantage of thorough and deliberate preparation for their calling; and that impatience of delay, and anxiety to enter upon the business and responsibilities of life, which are not strange to our experiences at home, seem to show themselves, as might be expected, still more strongly in the restless and progressive meridian of New England.

The course of study and the methods of instruction followed in the colleges, are in some respects similar to those prevailing in English training-schools.

The students are, in the first instance, required to become thoroughly conversant with the elementary subjects which they will have to teach. When this foundation has been laid, and their proficiency has been tested by examination, they pass on to a more advanced course. This includes languages, general history, ancient and modern geography, algebra, geometry, navigation, land-surveying, mental philosophy, physiology, and some other departments of natural science. If this course appears, to those acquainted with our training-school system, somewhat too wide and too ambitious, it must be remembered that the students in New England normal schools are not intended to be teachers of children of the poor exclusively, but that many of them are to be employed in the middle and grammar-schools, and even in the high schools of the State.

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As regards direct professional training, the methods pursued appear also to be analogous to our own. There is a model or practising school, in which the pupils take their turn of teaching; collective "criticism-lessons" are given from time to time; courses of lectures on school-management and the art of teaching are regularly delivered. The Principal appears generally to act as master of method. He visits the model school daily, overlooks the teaching of the students, presides at the criticism-lessons, and delivers the lectures. That sound and enlightened views of the importance of teaching as an art, and of the best methods of conducting it, are prevalent in America, is sufficiently proved by the excellence of some of the works on the subject, which have been published at New York and elsewhere.

That the State normal schools are on the whole doing a good work, and have contributed materially to the advancement of education in the Commonwealth, seems to be the decided conviction of those competent to judge. In 1850, an important inquiry was set on foot by Mr. Boutwell, secretary to the Board of Education. He circulated among the school-committees a paper of questions in reference to trained teachers, with a view to ascertain the numbers employed, their character, general efficiency, and particular merits and defects. To this circular he received replies from 202 towns. "Of these, 68 had never employed graduates of normal schools, and several others had employed a single graduate only for a brief period of time. Most of the committees of these towns naturally declined to express an opinion upon the system. Of the committees of the remaining towns, 11 are decidedly opposed to the schools, while 106 express themselves favourable, with degrees of feeling from calm moderation to ardent enthusiasm growing out of a long and satisfactory experience."

Glancing over the replies themselves, one meets with opinions which seem almost the echo of what is said in different quarters about training-colleges in England. There is very much the same tendency, in some instances, to generalize favourably or unfavourably from particular cases. Complaints that the normal system does not sufficiently provide for *professional* training are made in a case where the individual teacher may have turned out a bad disciplinarian. Charges of a tendency in the colleges to foster self-sufficiency are perhaps suggested by the encounter with some particular sample of conceited pædagogism.

The opinion, however, frequently recurs that sufficient care is not taken in the normal schools to stop, *in transitu*, all candidates who are obviously destitute of qualifications for the work of teacher. Any one acquainted with our English institutions, must feel that this objection may be at least as strongly urged against them. But, nevertheless, it may confidently be asserted of England, as of Massachusetts, that the normal or training-school system has greatly contributed to give soundness and thoroughness to popular education. Another important agency has been adopted in Massachusetts for promoting the efficiency of teachers. This is the establishment of what are called *Teachers' Institutes*. A short account of them may be interesting.

Teachers' Institutes are assemblies of teachers, held at some central

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place, for the sake of conference and self-improvement. They are, however, much more elaborate and complicated affairs than the meetings of our English schoolmasters' associations. In the first place, they excite more interest, and receive very much more attention, from the inhabitants of the towns where they are held. Generally the hospitality of the citizens is freely tendered to the teachers who come together. The institutes, moreover, remain "in session" for a considerable time, as long, frequently, as six weeks. During this period the members employ themselves in discussing professional subjects; they give model lessons to illustrate methods of teaching; they canvass the merits of different systems of organization and discipline; they compare notes as to the difficulties and trials of their daily work; they listen to lectures from eminent doctors and expounders of education. These institutes, therefore, are intended to be, and are, a kind of supplement to the normal schools, a sort of rough and ready pic-nic system of training, which, if it does not make men accomplished teachers, and altogether open the eyes of their professional understanding, at all events lets in some light, and enables them at any rate "to see men as trees walking."

Accordingly, the usefulness of teachers' institutes is generally recognised, and the State not only co-operates in their establishment, but authorizes a grant (not exceeding 3000 dollars) out of the Education Fund, to aid in defraying the necessary expenses. Since 1845, more than 150 of these meetings have been held.

The coping-stone is, as it were, put upon the educational system of the Commonwealth by the establishment of free public libraries, for which the Legislature has made provision by a statute empowering any city or town to tax itself for this object. It may be mentioned that, in 1860, returns were received from 45 public libraries, "containing 201,706 volumes, and receiving annual additions of not less than 22,000 volumes." "From these libraries (the Report informs us) 500,000 volumes are annually taken." The population of Massachusetts is 1,231,022, and the above estimate of the number of books annually read does not take into account the books in private libraries, or in the libraries of colleges, clubs, and other institutions. It cannot be doubted that the New Englanders are a reading people.

"A man who cannot read (says President Wayland) is a being not contemplated by the genius of the American Constitution."

So far it has been my aim simply to describe—in all its parts, and with some minuteness of detail—the system of education which prevails in Massachusetts. It remains to take a survey of its working in reference to some of those points by which its merits and defects can be most readily estimated. The length, however, to which this article has already extended, makes it necessary to bring it for the present to a close, and to take advantage of the opportunity, afforded by the courtesy of the Editor, of laying before the reader the second and last part in the next number of *The Museum*.

HUGH G. ROBINSON.

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II.—CAMBRIDGE AS IT IS.*

THIS is a valuable and most welcome addition to the highest class of education-manuals. Its primary object is to assist persons who may contemplate entering the University of Cambridge; and, by consequence, the parents, guardians, and responsible teachers of such persons. But so thoroughly and ably has the substantive information been handled, that undergraduates themselves may find great benefit from studying the book; especially those articles which treat of the greater or smaller tripos examinations, and Mr. Latham's ample and instructive account of University expenses.

The *Student's Guide* has two features of distinguishing merit. The first is, that it is not, like Professor Rogers' *Education in Oxford*, a critical work. It does not profess to inform us what the University ought to be, but to state in lucid detail what it *is*, and how it is conducted. Excellent results may be expected to follow this novel exposition before the general public of facts which are seldom thoroughly understood, even by persons who themselves have placed, or intend to place, their sons at college. We may expect gradually to hear fewer of the ignorant tirades in which the penny press occasionally indulges at the expense of the old Universities. The inner life of these great bodies will become, little by little, better understood; and a wider recognition will be accorded to that leaven of liberal intelligence which has never entirely ceased working either at Oxford or Cambridge; and which, since the labours of the Royal Commission (appointed in 1850), has effected a quiet but sweeping reform in both. The other meritorious feature to which we have referred is, that the *Guide* is a work of collaboration. The machinery of any ancient and learned corporation is sure to be more or less difficult of explanation to the world without. And that of the two elder Universities is so exceedingly complex that it by no means follows, because a man has taken a high degree and writes a good style, that he is qualified single-handed to describe the system in which he is living, or through which he has passed. Mr. Seeley, therefore, the careful editor of this handbook, has done wisely in securing the aid of nine coadjutors, every one of them known names in the world of education. These are, Professors Harold Browne, Abdy, and Liveing; Messrs. Burn, Campion, Latham, Mayor, and Roby; and Dr. Humphry, of the Addenbrooke Hospital, which offers excellent opportunities for study to candidates for medical degrees at Cambridge. Mr. Seeley himself, though a graduate of only six years' standing, is well known as a sound and thoughtful scholar, and is in every way qualified to superintend the production of a volume like this.

It is unwise and unfair to attempt, within the narrow limits of a review, anything like a summary of what is in itself an elaborate summary of carefully arranged details. We propose rather to draw atten-

* *The Student's Guide to the University of Cambridge.* Cambridge, Deighton: London, Bell & Daldy, 1863.

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tion to those parts of the book which give systematic information on subjects either not touched on, or not adequately explained in the *University Calendar*. And *first*, of Cambridge expenses. These naturally fall under two principal items, the preliminary outlay on entrance, and the annual expenditure. Mr. Latham gives, for fees and outfit, a *minimum* estimate of £28, an average of £42, 13s., and a higher charge of £62, 13s., the increase being, of course, laid almost entirely on the details of outfit. Half only of the cost of furniture is reckoned, the other half being recoverable from the next incoming tenant. The second half will remain sunk during the term of residence; and the only other charge to be reckoned under the head of outlay at starting is the caution-money, a sum of £15 (at Oxford £30), which is lodged in the tutor's hands as long as the student's name is on the boards. Regarding the more important point of annual expenditure, it may be laid down as a rough and ready estimate (taken, however, on the general result of a vast number of cases), that a young man may live at Cambridge, *in full enjoyment of the place*, but practising moderate economy and forethought, for the annual sum of £180, which may be reduced, by various methods of self-denial, to about £120. This sum must be divided into college-bill payments, and general expenses; these last varying according to the habits and tastes of the student. It is possible for an undergraduate to keep his college bills, taken alone, down to £70 a year; but to do this he must not only be very careful, but must choose his college, rooms, etc., with strict regard to economy. A considerable number of college bills come to about £90 a year; but they are easily swelled to £120, exclusive of tradesmen's bills, by a free indulgence in society and entertainments. It should, however, be remembered that the manly amusements and the different clubs, in which is contained so healthy a portion of University life, may be enjoyed at a comparatively small cost. The subscription to the "Union" (debating and reading club)—the arena in which Macaulay and Mackworth Praed first tried their powers—is only 10s. 6d. per term, with an entrance-fee of £1, 1s. The college boat-clubs and cricket-clubs are usually supported by a payment not exceeding 7s. 6d. or 10s. a term for each student. A very fair share in social entertainments may be attained at the cost of £45 a year; and it should be remembered that, in no inconsiderable proportion of cases, this phase of undergraduate life represents something beyond mere commonplace gaiety. A college wine-party may be, and often is, an opportunity of enjoying really good conversation, and of exchanging worthy thoughts; like those rare meetings described by the poet of *In Memoriam*, and which the publication of Arthur Hallam's *Remains* has enabled us to picture to ourselves with greater distinctness:—

> "Where once we held debate, a band
> Of youthful friends, on mind and art,
> And labour, and the changing mart,
> And all the framework of the land."

Or, if not quite up to such a standard as that, the wine-party or break-

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fast-party may be a pleasant *réunion* of English gentlemen, of very various endowments, whether mental or pecuniary, but each and all assembling on the footing of equality, which is nowhere seen so nobly preserved as in our public schools and Universities.* There are happily large numbers of parents who treat their sons with confidence, meeting with confidence in return, and whose means are well able to afford this moderate experience of a life which may give colour to the whole remainder of a lad's career; and it will probably be welcome intelligence to them that their highest wishes in this respect may be achieved at a cost well within £200 a year. The Cambridge course, for an ordinary B.A. degree, may be completed in two years and three quarters of residence; so that the entire outlay necessary, including all reasonable expenses, from the payment of the caution-money to the purchase of the bachelor's gown, need not exceed £600. And this, moreover, supposing a young man not to earn one single penny by his brain-work (in obtaining a scholarship or an exhibition) towards the liquidation of that sum. The very numerous opportunities which Cambridge affords for attaining these rewards, at once a help and a distinction, are minutely described in the *Student's Guide*. A hard-working and really well-taught boy, from a good school, can hardly fail of securing, within any but the great colleges of Trinity and St. John's, where the competition is very severe, a benefaction of at least £20 a year in some shape or other, excluding any exhibition that he may have been fortunate enough to win beforehand in the school from which he comes up. The aids and rewards of all kinds accruing to members of the University of Oxford, from the lowest to the highest, have been set down by a competent judge† at not less than *half a million* sterling of annual income. The *Student's Guide* supplies no corresponding general estimate for Cambridge; nor are we prepared to state that it is endowed on a scale of precisely equal munificence with the sister University. But it may very probably be assumed that a lad, on starting for Cambridge, goes forward, if gifted with anything worthy the name of intelligence and energy, to compete for a share in rewards not falling far short of £300,000 a year in the aggregate.

Another feature of the *Guide*, rendering it of great practical value to outsiders, consists in the elaborate accounts given of the University aids towards the Indian and Diplomatic Service candidates, as well as of the local or "middle class" examinations, which seem now to have struck permanent root in the country. Nowhere is classical learning pursued with greater thoroughness and vigour than at Cambridge. Now, classical knowledge carries very great weight in the Indian Service contest, and rightly so, for it represents long-continued steady work, and cannot possibly be acquired by a few weeks' unwholesome cramming. The classical papers set in the Indian examination are just those which would suit a man who had been reading for scholarships or for the tripos at Cambridge. In the modern languages, thoroughly able teachers can be obtained at the University, on payment of a very

* See Montalembert in *L'Avenir d'Angleterre.*
† Professor J. E. T. Rogers.

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moderate fee. The moral and natural sciences, which also tell so highly in the Indian contests, are each encouraged by a "tripos" examination, attracting indeed but few candidates at present, as the B.A. degree cannot be obtained in either of them, but framed upon excellent methods. Besides which, Sanscrit is taught at Cambridge, and there are two Professors of Arabic. The standard for Indian appointments has been very much lowered by the reduction of the limit of age, from twenty-two to twenty-one. Under the former system, persons who had taken their degree, and proved themselves a little below the place required for a fellowship (the first fifteen wranglers, and first ten or twelve classics), could formerly compete for Indian posts, and these men were among the ablest who went in from Cambridge. Under the present system, if they waited to try their fortune in the final senate-house examinations, superannuation for the Indian competition would in most cases be the consequence. And, as about thirty fellowships are annually awarded in Cambridge, most men of decided merit turn away from the Indian prospect, and cling to the chance of taking such a degree as may secure one of those coveted prizes.

The local examinations, established by Oxford in 1857, and by Cambridge in 1858, have been too often and too fully described to need any explanation here. It may be stated, however, on the authority of an excellent paper by Mr. Roby, in the *Student's Guide*, that their object—namely, to extend the benefits of University influence to schools lying between the public or Grammar schools and the National Schools—has been attained with a very high degree of success. Grammar-school and middle-school masters now very generally adjust their work with reference to these tests. The honours of their pupils are advertised, and local boards institute prizes for distinction at their particular centre of examination. Statesmen and local magnates appear at public meetings to distribute the prizes, and add *éclat* to the successful exertions of the youthful candidates. What shows more particularly the judgment and *bonâ fide* energy with which Cambridge has interested herself in this task is, that the public examinations as at present held are not considered in the light of a final measure. *Inspection* is felt to be no less requisite for middle than for National Schools; and regulations framed for that purpose by a syndicate were promulgated by the Vice-Chancellor so lately as June 1862. Any school may now secure an examiner, to conduct its half-yearly or annual examination, on payment of travelling and printing expenses, £1 as a preliminary fee, and further fees to the amount of £3 *per diem*. This examiner will be regularly appointed by the syndicate; to them he will report the state of proficiency of each several class, and the general state of the whole school; and the report will be communicated by them to the head-master or governors. Every master of a private school numbering anything over a very small complement of boys, and really caring for their interests, would recognise at once, we should hope, the inestimable advantages of this scheme. Whenever competition for a good open scholarship at Oxford or Cambridge comes round, the common remark is, that such and such

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a public school candidate is in, and that he is sure to win. But the very thing which tells most strongly in giving the public school boy his superiority is the frequency of perfectly open examinations conducted at his own school by strangers. This gives a most valuable spur to energies which might otherwise remain dormant; and this boon the University places within the reach of any tolerably prosperous private school. Nor does the present examination system, conducted at centres, and for the most part influencing directly only a picked few out of each school, preclude or hinder inspection. On the contrary, as Mr. Roby observes, the chances of inspection being introduced are improved each time that public attention is thus drawn to the intermediate class of schools.

We will only add, in conclusion, that the great bulk of the book descriptive of the four tripos examinations (in mathematics, classics, moral science, and natural science), of the examinations for legal and medical degrees, and of the theological examinations, is on the whole admirably executed, and will be found well worthy the attention of any one interested in the higher departments of education. Professor Harold Browne's paper, which is, as might be expected, clear and thorough, would be found probably full of useful hints by many a clergyman long past his college career. And of Mr. Burn's capital article on the "Classical Tripos," we will say—the highest praise we can think of—that, to any undergraduate who is up to making the most of it, it will be as good as a month's "coaching."

H. M. M.

III.—QUOTING AND QUOTERS.

The fashions of literature are almost as unstable as those of dress and manners, and sometimes recede and re-appear with a similar eccentricity. Every century has had its style and its mannerism down to our own, where the real and the imitative are common enough. But our present purpose is only to trace the growth and changes of one of these aspects of general literature, in doing which we must broadly mark its historical antecedents, and, as we think, its originative elements.

Not many centuries ago, European writers used one language at home, a second in society, and a third in their writings. Here and there a few strong minds broke through these trammels, and united two of these modes of speech, or elevated one into a dignified position as their chosen medium of communication. Chaucer is a representative of the first mode. He avoided Latin and French, urged his countrymen "to show their fantasies in such words as they had learneden of their dames' tongue," but at the same time was, unconsciously perhaps, deviating from his own advice by making a choice mixture of dialects. Dante is an example of the second method. He composed his noble epic in his mother-tongue, and patiently bore the

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taunts of the learned when they called him vulgar for so doing. As an example of another and a vacillating type, we may take his countryman Petrarch, who composed in both the Latin and the Italian tongue, but plumed himself more upon his achievements in the former. Indeed, to use the common tongue was equivalent to debasing what was conveyed by it, and to translate was contemptuously styled *volgarizzare*. In our own universities the Latin professor was called, and is so still, the Professor of Humanity; he being expressly established in his office to extirpate *barbarism*, in which the vulgar idioms were classed with other things. But almost immediately that writers ceased to strive to be most Greek amongst the Greeks, and most Latin amongst the Latins, as the old saying phrased it, and condescended to use the current national tongue for literary communications, a new fashion made its appearance, which, in plain, homely language, we may call the fashion of quotation. So long as men wrote in a classical language, it was always convenient to deny the existence of any other save a cognate one; but it was neither so agreeable nor so prudent to do this when they made use of an unclassical one. Amongst our own writers, for instance, ignorance of Saxon might pass for wisdom, when to appear ignorant of Greek or Latin would be plain proof that they really were so. Every concession they made to the modern was therefore balanced by a judicious use of the ancient. A learned allusion, a classic saying, an Attic pun, a Roman epigram, or a lengthy foot-note, was regarded as almost indispensable in establishing an author's claim to enrolment in the guild of letters, and in elevating the reader's mind to a dim kind of reverential emotion. Quotations were not only a witness of the writer's studies, but a spice, a stimulus, a sort of half-protest, and a kind of fashionable necessity.

It is very true that the past will assert itself in this manner, especially where the quoter is extremely familiar with its writings, and has, one may say, been fed and reared upon them. The ancients have left us few subjects upon which they did not write wisely or guess well, and that fact is and ever must be a strong argument in favour of such a proceeding; but the spontaneous graces of the genuinely learned may degenerate into captivating affectations or tricky devices in the efforts of less prudent and less-minded successors; and we feel ourselves warranted by facts in stating this to have been the case very soon after the mother-tongue was largely adopted for common literary purposes. To follow Aristotle's advice, as recommended by Roger Ascham, and "to speak as the common people do, and think as wise men do," was no easy matter; and some broken efforts were the natural result of the earlier attempts. What was at first felt as necessary by a few, was no sooner actually conquered by them than it was affected by many others as a sort of common dress. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries saw this mania of quoting at its height. Men who might have known, and really did know better, stuffed their pages with citations and classic terms, from preface to index, from title to foot-note. Along the very margins they crowded like javelin-men, or gentlemen in attendance, now and then elbowing themselves into the mass of the text. It

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mattered little what the subject was, and what the intention, for it was still the same, whether the book were serious or jocose. The writer would at any time leave his track to bring in a quotation, as the monkish historians wandered in their chronicles for the sake of making a pious pun. It must have been during this period one would think that the English proverb arose, "the wiser, the waywarder;" and its German fellow, "the greater the scholar, the greater the fool." Amongst serious writings, those of Jeremy Taylor may be taken as a specimen of this quaint affectation; and in humorous, or rather serio-comic ones, Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy* stands pre-eminent. Burton was indeed an incorrigible quoter, and confesses it honestly enough. "I have only this of Macrobius to say for myself, *omne meum, nihil meum*, 'tis all mine and none mine. . . . . I have wronged no authors, but given every man his own, which Hierom so commends in Nepotian; he stole not whole verses, pages, tracts, as some do now-a-days, concealing their authors' names, but still said this was Cyprian's, etc. I cite and quote mine authors (which, howsoever, some illiterate scribblers account pedantical, as a cloke of ignorance, and opposite to their affected fine stile, I must and will use), *sumpsi, non surripui*," etc. Milton has described one of this kind of books as 'a paroxysm of citations, pampered metaphors, and aphorisming pedantry.' The translators of our authorized version of the Bible, in the preface to the edition of 1611, complain that the Remish translators had encumbered its study with their Greek and Latin terms, 'inkhorn terms,' as Fulke called them.

Such affectations were by no means confined to authors as a body, but were common to all cultivated men, and to those who wished to appear so, in the very flexible form in which our native tongue still remained. Wilson, an old writer, complained that many "powdered their talk with over-sea language," and others that "*smell but of learning*," were wont "so to Latin their tongues," as to be almost unintelligible to common men. Another writer, Puttenham, also remarks that a number of strange words and phrases were used in the sea-port towns, thus showing us how they took root, so to speak, and how gradually they spread themselves. In the Universities, he adds, "the scholars use much peevish *affectation of words* out of the primitive languages." Sancho Panza observes of Don Quixote, "that he is a main scholar, and *Latins it hugely*," and Butler has made Hudibras equally clever, for he says:—

> "Besides 'tis known he could speak Greek,
> As naturally as pigs squeak;
> That Latin was no more difficile,
> Than to a blackbird 'tis to whistle.
> Being rich in both he never scanted
> His bounty unto such as wanted:
> But much of either would afford
> To many that had not one word."

The result was a "patched and pyeballed language," which must have been unique in its way. The common people, indeed, were as bad as

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the better educated. They liked a man, a minister especially, who could quote well. A friend of Dr. Pocock's was once travelling unwittingly through that gentleman's parish, and inquired who the minister was, and how he was liked. "Our parson is one Mr. Pocock," was the characteristic reply, "a plain, honest man; but, Master," they added, by way of criticism and modification, "*he is no Latiner!*" We also learn that country justices were extremely fond of Latin terms and phrases in giving their adjudications to open-mouthed and rebellious rustics. So common and ludicrous a fashion of speech could not escape the attention of Shakspeare, and accordingly, in one of his earliest plays, *Love's Labour Lost*, written when he was twenty-five, he has sketched two of these pedants to the very life. These are Holofernes, the schoolmaster, and Sir Nathaniel, the curate, who quote so frequently that Moth tells them they have been "at a great feast of languages, and stolen the scraps." Holofernes far excels the curate in this art of Latinizing, and perhaps the following may be taken as a very fair specimen of his style:—

> "'Great Hercules is presented by this imp,
> Whose club killed Cerebus, that three-headed *canus*,
> And when he was a babe, a child, a shrimp,
> Thus did he strangle serpents in his *manus*.
> *Quoniam*, he seemeth in minority;
> *Ergo*, I come with this apology'—
> Keep some state in thy *exit*, and vanish."

Perhaps Shakspeare, by his mighty genius and range of powers, did more than any other to inaugurate a truer method, though its more perfect fulfilment was somewhat delayed. He was both a critic and a worker, and his own wit rebounded upon himself. He made common sayings and common terms into classic ones, and has the honour and the misfortune to be as much quoted and haggled as any of the ancients. He so infused his own virtue into everything he wrote, that as soon as his writings were studied off the stage, the old fashion became changed, and pedantic affectations were as carefully avoided as they had previously been carelessly used. This, however, was not until the fashion had somewhat worn itself out. And yet one may justly make him adopt the imitation of Aristophanes by Frere, which Coleridge used as one of his mottoes for *The Friend*:—

> "When I received the muse from you, I found her puffed and pampered
> With pompous sentences and terms, a cumb'rous huge virago.
> My first attention was applied to make her look genteelly,
> And bring her to a moderate bulk by dint of lighter diet;
> I fed her with plain household phrase, and cool familiar salad,
> With water-gruel episode, with sentimental jelly,
> With moral mince-meat; till at length I brought her within compass."

Of later and lighter writers, we may take Addison as one of the first to use quotations nicely, aptly, and yet liberally. The value of his essays is very much enhanced by them, and all scholars are agreed in praising their beauty and point. Yet he himself was so sensible of the affectation of quoting, that he censures the modern custom of

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twisting and perverting quotations for medals, which he makes Philander say, may very well be applied to the mottoes of books, and other inscriptions of the same nature. Dr. Johnson must not be forgotten, for his Dictionary was a masterly attempt to use quotations in an entirely unique manner. Before he commenced his orderly labour, he made collections from various sources for his purpose. "I was desirous," he says, "that every quotation should be useful to some other end than the illustrating of a word; I therefore selected from philosophers, principles of science; from historians, remarkable facts; from chemists, complete processes; from divines, striking exhortations; and from poets, beautiful descriptions." The enormous bulk to which such a work would have swollen, deterred him from his plan, so that he had to curtail or expunge most of his extracts. His Dictionary, nevertheless, was a successful effort, and has afforded valuable help to many worthy successors in the same field.

Having thus lightly sketched the historical aspect of our subject, we may briefly examine the etymology of the word *quote* itself. The Romans seem to have made a distinction that we ignore, in the synonyme *cite*, which we derive directly from them. To cite was to praise, or receive, or give as witness. The idea of authority underlies the word very distinctly, and although the germ of another meaning, as to number or mark, was doubtless dormant in *quot* and its compounds, we owe our word *quote* to the Low Latin *quotare*, to note or mark how much. It is here seen that the two meanings tend to unite, or, at any rate, become confused with each other, which very soon became the case in the Italian *cotare*. The French language has preserved both the terms, *quoter* and *coter*, but the indistinctness in their meaning is even more marked. To quote even became equivalent to taking heed of, and critically observing. Thus Polonius to Ophelia in *Hamlet*:—

> "I am sorry that with better heed and judgment
> I had not *quoted* him."

Again, in *Troilus and Cressida*:—

> "I have with exact view perused thee, Hector,
> And *quoted* joint by joint."

A pun in the *Two Gentlemen of Verona* gives the old pronunciation of the word, even when spelt as now, which is not without interest:—

> "*Thurio.*—And how quote you my folly?
> *Valentine.*—I *quote* (*cote*, i.e., *coat*) it in your jerkin.
> *Thurio.*—My jerkin is a doublet.
> *Valentine.*—Well, then, I'll double your folly."

Quoting, then, has two legitimate meanings—(1.) marking, praising, backing, or verifying; and (2.) numbering, or simply figuring. The latter use of the term is strictly a commercial one, and does not concern us here. Modern French, however, we may here remark, has a third term for quote, *guillemeter*, to put between inverted commas, which is the very perfection of comprehensiveness even in its narrow negativism.

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The old meaning of our term is very useful. Words, like human beings, have an innocent, honest plainness about them in their infancy, which they sometimes lose as they grow older. We have this openness in the Roman synonymes of *cito* and *laudo*, which, if they imply anything, imply appreciation; and if they deny anything, deny hypocrisy and misuse. The old meaning is not only open and definite, but it flashes out for us a very smart criticism. The writers of the present century, from a laudable desire to avoid the affectation of their predecessors, have slid to the opposite extreme, and neglected a valuable method not only of broadening and confirming their own ideas, but of improving and embellishing their style. Now that the common language is exalted to a level once possible only to a classic one, it is often deemed as pedantic, and perhaps as vulgar, to quote from a classic author, as it would formerly have been to quote from a vulgar idiom in writing Latin or Greek. As an illustration of this we may mention the fact, that a classical quotation in a speech is regarded as quite an event amongst such learned bodies as our Houses of Parliament. The result of all this has been somewhat curious, and has certainly given rise to many fallacies. "It is generally supposed, that where there is no quotation," says I. D'Israeli, "there will be found most originality. . . . The greater part of our writers, in consequence, have become so original, that no one cares to imitate them; and those who never quote in return are never quoted." This irony is excellent; but the fact last mentioned is well substantiated. For instance, Epicurus wrote three hundred volumes all "out of his own head,"—as the boy said he had carved his ship, when he was told to do another, since there was plenty of wood left—and nothing but the merest fragments remain; whilst Plutarch, Seneca, and the Elder Pliny, who quoted extensively, are still quoted at the latest dates. The same may be said of Cicero, who quoted so largely, both literally and ideally, that Joubert has justly said of him, "that in philosophy he was a kind of moon."

There is, then, such a fault as that of being too original, or, at any rate, too arrogant in assuming to be so. The fallacy of supposing that any mind can take up and think out any subject of human inquiry, unless it be a very modern one indeed, without deriving assistance from other minds, or drifting into tracks where others have been before, whose labours it is nothing but honest to admit, whether they are used or refused, is a fallacy, unhappily of very wide extension, and one that develops itself into all manner of eccentricities in the realms of authorship and science. It underlies many a man's conception of genius and talent, proves itself by many wasted lives, and has led to too many modern instances of folly to need more express reference to facts. Whenever genius is assumed to be a faculty that can dispense with study, and do without real labour, we may be sure that this fallacy is the groundwork of so conceited a notion. History reads us a noble lesson on the matter. The best writers cannot do without quotation. Some one has preceded them and helped them, fashioned their minds, and touched out their conceptions into fulness, beauty, and power, and it would ill become the pupil not to speak honourably of his masters.

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Every step one takes is in territory where we meet with at least the footprints of others. Is it honest, then, to blur them over, and tell the world that no one has been hither but themselves? We can go farther, press deeper, and tread more thickly, without any imputation upon our courage or worth, so that we are but just to others. Quotation and use may very well pass for correlative terms. Our common speech is a quotation, and the very letters of our alphabet were in use before we could use them. Must we have dictionaries and alphabets of our own then? Homer quoted, and Plato quoted. To recognise aught that is beautiful, and to use it if it be useful, is quotation, though it be not always done with inverted commas, or by small type, or saying, Thus said this or that man. "When we are praising Plato," writes Emerson, "it seems we are praising quotations from Solon and Sophron and Philolaus. Be it so. Every book is a quotation; and every house is a quotation out of all forests, mines, and stone quarries; and every man is a quotation from all his ancestors; and this grasping inventor puts all nations under contribution." Not that Plato, or Shakspeare, or Goethe, who quoted largely in this broad philosophic sense, used or needed the common signs of borrowing. The very terms of their self-announcement or declaration of office, put them to no such necessity; for they professed no Epicurean originality. They said, or seemed to say in their books,—"Here am I, philosopher, dramatist, poet, and here is mine. I have used others, and could not do otherwise, but I have made theirs my own. I do not disguise my wide relations; you can test me by them, resolve me into myself, and then say what you please." Lesser men, however, can hardly assume such a magnanimous attitude, and some even of their compeers, as Bacon, Montaigne, Coleridge, and others, have not scrupled to name their authorities systematically, that we may not stumble. But they have not suffered by their honesty.

Quotations are therefore in some way indispensable, and, when properly used, at least pardonable. They serve many noble purposes, even with the noblest, as we have seen, and with all they have many recommendations. They are useful, as sometimes showing that an author has thought up to his own aspect of any question, and balanced its several elements. As registering past opinions, and helping us to deduce others, they are not without advantages; and as bringing the authority of accredited authors to our assistance, they disarm captious criticism, insure a candid estimate, and soften the harshness of fanciful novelties or daring speculations. They are the quarterings of our literary escutcheons, and indicate ancestry, bravery, and prestige. There is more labour implied in them than many appear to recognise. A single sentence may represent a whole year's study, and a whole morning's work may pass unnoticed in a choice morsel, or a careful verification. "What proceeds from our own genius," said Bayle; "sometimes costs much less time than what is required for collecting." When Boswell told Johnson that Dr. Shebbeare had received six guineas a sheet for reviews, including extracts, and said he did not think it was reasonable, the Doctor replied, fiercely, "Yes, it is. A

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man will more easily write a sheet all his own than read an octavo volume to get extracts." This was putting the matter rather roundly, but it was better to do this than miss the truth altogether. There is great art as well as labour in quotation. Quotations are sometimes excellent overtures and felicitous finales. They inlay a common texture with "patins of bright gold." A man may tell his friend what he dare not even say to himself, and citations happily say for us sometimes what we might hesitate in putting into our own words. They are a negative medium between criticism and one's-self, or better, they are like the atmosphere whose power to convey is balanced by its power to resist. Many a man can say in a proverb what he dare not put in common speech, and an ancient author is a screen for timid youth and tender men. Tertullian and Augustine have told many an audience what would have offended them had the preacher put it into his own words. But to quote well a man must have first read well, and to quote with grace and effect a man must think for himself as well, for fustian and velvet, deal and ivory, do not go happily together. A mere quoter, larding his writings with the fat of others' works, as Jovius puts it, is easily recognised, and speedily estimated. And yet we want a term for such an one, and the Miltonic epithet *Quotationist*, is so descriptive and emphatic as to deserve to be restored to common use. Cardinal du Perron is reported to have said, that a verse from Virgil, happily applied, was worth a talent. How we should quote best is rather a disputed matter. "In quoting of books," said Selden, "quote such authors as are usually read; others read for your own satisfaction, but do not name them." Happily even Selden's practice was better than his precept, and much more honest. The art in quoting lies in force and aptness,—not so much to repeat what is known, as to tell what is not, although a pithy sentence, even if known, when well applied, will occasionally prove a resolving electric spark amongst otherwise disunited elements. To confine quotation so narrowly, however, would be to make it degenerate into weak-mindedness, and a vice of word-catching. There is a pleasant surprise when the quotations are fresh and natural, and whoever wishes to please should avoid the hackneyed sentences which every smatterer uses. "I am wonderfully pleased when I meet with a passage in an old Greek or Latin author," says Addison, "that is not *blown upon*, and which I have never met with in quotation." The metaphor here is an excellent argument, and the joy of its author is an admirable precept. Very frequently quotations preserve the better part of an author's writings for coming generations, as the result of a careful sifting and studious examination that very few have the leisure, or will take the trouble, to make for themselves. Coleridge aimed at doing this in the selection of his mottoes for *The Friend*, always preferring those from books which were least likely to be generally known, and pleasing himself with the fancy that he might have saved from oblivion the only striking passage in a volume, or have attracted attention to some writer undeservedly forgotten. Scott and Burns have thus preserved for us many excellent

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relics, notwithstanding that the former is known to have invented almost as many *old song* extracts as he discovered.

There are some authors who read best in quotations, and whose minds were so constituted as only to afford their successors help in this fragmentary form. Such are the aphoristic writers, as Novalis, Joubert, Emerson, and others. Perhaps our poetical literature presents us with the happiest illustrations of this; and in many modern efforts it would seem that our poets have written more to be quoted than to be read. Pope is laying down a truth, when he writes of "Sprat, Carew, Sedley, and a hundred more," and rhymes it:—

> "One simile that solitary shines
> In the dry desert of a thousand lines,
> Or lengthened thought that gleams through many a page
> Has sanctified whole poems for an age."

Denham's lines in his *Cooper's Hill*, descriptive of the Thames, are a trite illustration of this, for very few have ever read the poem, although as Dr. Johnson says, since Dryden commended the lines, almost every writer for a century past has imitated them. Other illustrations are common enough, but the writings of Dryden perhaps afford the most striking example of this preservative quotation. Scarcely one reader in ten thousand has ever read his dramas, and yet frequent quotations are made from them without half the quoters knowing whence they come. Here are a few specimens:—

> "Love is that madness which all lovers have:
> And yet 'tis sweet and pleasing so to rave."—*Conquest of Granada.*
>
> "I am as free as nature first made man,
> Ere the base laws of servitude began,
> When wild in woods the noble savage ran."—*Ibid.*
>
> "That friendship which from withered love doth shoot
> Like the faint herbage on a rock, wants root;
> Love is a tender amity, refined:
> Grafted on friendship, it exalts the mind;
> But when the graft no longer does remain,
> The dull stock lives, but never bears again."—*Ibid.*
>
> "So noiseless would I live, such death to find
> Like timely fruit not shaken by the wind,
> But ripely dropping from the sapless bough,
> And dying, nothing to myself would owe."—*State of Innocence.*
>
> "Man is but man, unconstant, still, and various;
> There's no to-morrow in him like to-day."—*Cleomenes.*

But to many perhaps the most striking quotation will be one commonly ascribed to Wordsworth, from his line, "the child is father of the man:"—

> "Men are but children of a larger growth;
> Our appetites are apt to change as theirs,
> And full as craving too, and full as vain;
> And yet the soul shut up in her dark room,
> Viewing so clear abroad, at home sees nothing;
> But like a mole in earth, busy and blind,
> Works all her folly up, and casts it outward
> To the world's open view."—*All for Love.*

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But quotation has its dangers. It is very possible that a man's memory should become so strong as to exhaust his other intellectual faculties, and extensive quotation may lead to a dwarfage of the mind, or at any rate to a mental timidity and hesitation. This, however, cannot take place so long as a reader or a writer is bold enough to submit his intellect to sharp exercises in the way of unaided excogitation. Whenever a man finds that he is merely giving out what he has taken in, let him shut his books, and climb the nearest hill, or ramble for a week or two in some mountainous locality, for it is a sure sign of mental ill-health or inactivity. Quotation may affect our style if we do not narrowly watch ourselves. It is so much easier to follow some definite model, than to conform to the intangible and half-unknown process and fashion which is really our own. Fénélon tells us that Tertullian has in this way spoiled many preachers; and in our own day, Carlyle's abrupt and singular sentences have damaged many a quoting admirer. Quotations may affect our very speech, and give it a grotesque sententiousness pardonable only amongst *literati*, and a smell of the lamp that ill accords with the sprightliness of social habits. Some quoters are mighty in proverbs, and pelt you with them as Galatea did Damœtas with apples in Virgil,—a proceeding which is not always very pleasant. Another class reserves to itself the exclusive privilege of quoting all the facetiæ that regularly appear in some of our periodical publications. We once knew a youth who regularly transcribed these for that purpose, and proved what one might call a second-hand wit. Others, who are learning some foreign language, or pride themselves upon knowing one, bespatter their common speech with all manner of ridiculous words, and particularly Gallicisms. These vices indeed are so common, as to find favour with many tale and novel writers, to whose writing they certainly do not contribute any grace or charm, but are real disfigurements, unless they represent the imperfect speech of one who is endeavouring to make himself intelligible to a foreigner in his native language. "Classical quotation is the *parole* of literary men all over the world," said Johnson, but there is certainly nothing like dignity or community of mind in this patchwork medium of modern society.

Perhaps poetry is more quoted in conversation than prose, for many excellent reasons which are too obvious to require enumeration. Yet nowhere is there more confusion than in the most familiar quotations, and in assigning them to their legitimate authors. One of the most useful portions of the earlier volumes of *Notes and Queries* consists of these corrections as to words and authors. But no editor's range of reading can compensate for blundering and inexactness. Our oftenest quoted poet, Shakspeare, is as misquoted as any. Ten out of any twenty persons blunder over that line in Hamlet, which stands the same, we believe, in all the editions, "nor customary suits of *solemn* black," making it read *formal*, for modern appositeness we should suppose. We once heard a gentleman of considerable reading and culture quote, as Tennyson's, the opening line of Keats' *Endymion*, and we staggered beneath it in silence. Here we must enter our protest

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against dictionaries of poetical quotations, poetical indexes to Shakspeare, and the like. They are surely shallow things, and their use must betray itself. "What a Shakspearian Mr. Brown is!" said a friend one day. "He strung me half a dozen or more quotations together, all containing the same thought in different forms." "Was it in conversation?" "No, in a letter." "Dear me, how strange! But he 's got a dict— well, never mind. Yes, he *is, in his way.*"

Correctness of quotation cannot be too much insisted upon. It is a very rare merit in controversy; and one has only to read any prolonged discussion carefully to find that many arguments are the result of misquotation, where a little more exactness would have saved both parties many pages and much passion. Misquotation and misinterpretation are twins. Some of our cheaper newspapers are notorious for misquotations, and at least one of our London dailies has many weaknesses that way. In this respect, however, we think some of them wisely endeavour to be extremely exact. Errors in figures are very common, simply because a wrong figure is not like a wrong letter, and reads sensibly enough however wrong it may be. In the references given to books in foot-notes, very few of them can ever be authenticated, chiefly from the fact of the writers not giving the edition quoted from, if there chance to be several of the same work, as well as from their not rigorously checking the references in proof-reading. Coleridge's peculiarities in this respect are well known. He quoted, and no one could find the passage, for it was really his own; and he wrote as his own what proved to be an almost literal quotation, so curious were the freaks his memory played him. It is not more important to give correct references than it is to give them systematically where they are really needed, as in questions of terms or facts. We have spoken of blurring the footprints, and we did not speak without facts before us. Many ancient writers practised this species of pilfering. Gilbert Stuart lived upon Robertson in this way; and more recently Sir Wm. Hamilton tells of a still stranger case. He was struck by the coincidence between the opinions of Dr. Brown and those of Dr. Young of Belfast, and could not account for the remarkable identity of opinion they manifested, except by assuming, as he says, the hypothesis of a pre-established harmony between their minds. The real truth subsequently disclosed itself in the fact, that their similarity arose from their both stealing from the same writer, De Tracy.

Whether quotations in a dead or foreign language should be translated or not, is a question as yet undecided, perhaps from a laudable desire on the part of authors to offend no one by assuming themselves to be better cultivated than others. It is hard to lay down a canon which shall cover every case, but we believe the following is the only one that will fully meet the matter. If the book is unlikely to be readable to the uncultivated, or better, if it cannot be understood except by one who can understand the citations, the original languages are always preferable; but where a work can be understood without such thoroughness, long quotations may be given in the originals (if the fact or the precise words are necessary elements in an argument), but

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should always be accompanied by a translation. The absence of a translation continually wearies and annoys the majority of readers, shuts them out from getting at a point in issue, and prevents them from duly verifying an important fact or idea. It is true that sometimes the passage may suffer, and must suffer in translation, but if literally rendered, that difficulty may generally be met, unless it be the melody of the passage that constitutes its beauty. Queen Caroline, it is said, commanded Dr. Clarke to translate the numerous quotations in Wollaston's *Religion of Nature*, and the result was anything but satisfactory. As a concluding piece of advice, we would strongly recommend all cultivated persons not to use that barbarous Americanism, *says* or *said*, in introducing a quotation, a practice which we are sorry to see becoming fashionable with some minor journalists. EDWIN GOADBY.

IV.—FIRST STEPS IN MATHEMATICS.

ONE of the greatest hindrances that teachers have to contend with, when endeavouring to convey a knowledge of elementary mathematics to young people, is the strong impression that these learners have that they are about to be ushered into a perfectly new region. They suppose that nothing they have hitherto learned will either be of direct service to them here, or furnish them with any clue to the mode whereby they are to master the difficulties surrounding the entrance to this untried and formidable domain. Now, where this strong prejudice exists, it must, if possible, be removed before any adequate success can be hoped for; and we propose to give some hints upon the mode of presenting these elementary truths to the mind of a beginner, and especially of teaching him their relation both to his previously-attained knowledge, and to the objects meeting him in everyday life.

Of course, geometry and algebra are the two subjects which are first presented to youths entering upon the study of mathematics. And in each of these we think it may be made clear to the learner that many of the truths exhibited in them flow out of other truths of common experience; or rather, that they are the perfect form of expressing facts and truths hitherto very passively received, and often very inaccurately stated. So that when these explanations and illustrations take full hold upon the mind, and it is seen that there is an accurate parallelism between the facts so commonly admitted and the abstract form of expression employed in the more precise statements of geometry and algebra; the pupil will instantaneously confess that he has in reality been both a geometer and algebraist, though in a feeble and undeveloped form. And the new acquaintances he is about to make will elicit from him, or rather develop within him, the crude forms so familiar to him, until they become rigorously accurate truths, not only widely applicable to the study of the various objects around him, but increasing his capacity for receiving truths which deviate somewhat

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from the beaten track, and are therefore less easily apprehended by untrained intellects. For example, geometry is nothing more than an investigation of form and outline, whether of a surface or a solid; and in the simplest examples of it that come before a pupil in the definitions, he may be so taught that he cannot fail to recognise, in the subject of every definition, a figure which is almost every day presented to him, but which, on account of its other and more familiar properties, has not left a very definite impression of those with which alone geometry has to do. Thus a book, a box-lid, or a carpet, have all suggested the idea of an oblong; yet the uses to which these have been put have withdrawn the mind of the ordinary user of them from their special properties of form. But let the young person be reminded that his eye would have been offended, had the two boards of his book been of unequal size, or if their corners had been imperfectly formed into the angles of a square, or had the box-lid been a little too short, or too narrow; or that, had the corners of the room not been perfect right angles, there would have instantaneously arisen a sense of want of fitness: and thus a higher share of attention will be drawn to those properties of tolerable accuracy of form, which commonly accompany these articles of familiar use. Again, an acute, obtuse, or right angle may never have been presented to the youthful eye in any way of formal definition; but the things themselves have been at hand, and their absence or presence daily turned to use or provided against, as the case may be. Thus, the sharpness of a chisel or common pocket-knife, and the very great acuteness of the angle between the two sides which meet to form the edge, are themselves constant reminders of the existence of acute angles of almost all degrees. The same chisel offers, in another part of its outline, an example of an obtuse angle; even the ordinary positions of the knuckles of the hand present hourly before the eye examples of obtuseness. And the forms which we have already mentioned, of the book, the box, and the carpet, suggest that the right angle is the invariable standard with which all acute and obtuse angles are to be compared. Nay further, the fact that an oblong table, however small, will go into and exactly fill the corner of an oblong room, or a little book be readily packed into the corner of a large box, shows that not only is the right angle a standard of angular value, but that *all right angles are equal.*

A few instances may now be given of the difficulties which beset a very large majority of unthinking beginners, and of the best mode of meeting them by appeal to common experience. Teachers of geometry will have observed how very often a mistake is made in the application of the following theorem: "If two sides and the included angle in each of two triangles are given respectively equal, all the other parts of the triangles, and the triangles themselves, are equal." The error is this; learners think that when it is known that two sides in the one are equal to two sides in the other, *therefore* the contained angles are equal; and they are a long time in perceiving that the equality of the angles is an independent datum; and, consequently, in attempting to employ the above proposition, they are very apt to think that they can apply the

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reasoning of it when they have simply established the equality of two pairs of sides, and virtually assumed the equality of the angles.

To remove this, show the pupil two similar pairs of compasses, but not open to the same angle; keep one fixed, and open the other through every variety of angle, and thus let him see how the size of the included angle is perfectly independent of the length of the containing sides which remain invariable; and especially how the length of the base and the area of the triangle are influenced by the size of this angle. When we repeat the proposition, it will not be needful to reproduce the pairs of compasses; and when the pupil comes to the 24th and 25th propositions of the first book of Euclid, he sees the actual result of not having the two angles between the pairs of sides equal; and the converse.

When the pupil has observed the various data requisite in the 4th, 8th, and 26th propositions, his attention may be called to the general principle, that out of the six parts in any triangle, viz., three sides and three angles, *three* must always be given to determine the other *three;* and further, when he comes to examine the nature of an algebraic equation, it may be pointed out to him what a harmony there is between the algebraical and geometrical processes, in that three equations are required when three unknown quantities are involved. Also the apparently failing case may be shown, where the three angles given will not suffice; and he will soon see that there is no real departure from the general principle just told him, because he will observe that if *two* angles, A, B, are given, the third angle is necessarily known, being equal to $180-(A+B)$; and hence the giving of the third angle is really no third datum at all. And he may further learn that in one case of the trigonometrical solution of a triangle, in which three particular data are given, there will also be a corresponding incomplete solution, because, unless some restriction be given, whereby the data are rendered three thoroughly independent facts, they are virtually reducible to two really defined, and a third but partially so.

Again, considerable insight into his work may be given to the pupil, by showing him occasionally how the solution of the problem must have been formed in the mind of the discoverer, by resorting to the analytic method of inquiry. Indeed, he may, from one proposition which we shall soon discuss, more clearly than from any other demonstration, gather the meaning of the terms synthetic and analytic. The best example we can select for illustrating this is Euclid ii. 11, in studying which many an intelligent pupil must have been sorely puzzled to make out how the discoverer of the problem could ever have hit upon the construction. But if he will pursue the analytic method, the difficulty will speedily vanish. For, looking at the figure in any edition of Euclid, if he assumes that there is a point H, lying *somewhere* between the centre and one extremity of the given line, he may suppose for a moment that he has guessed its position. He will then erect the square F H upon the longer portion A H, and upon the smaller segment B H place the rectangle H D, of which that smaller segment shall be the shorter side, and the line B D = A B, the longer one. Then, by the question, F H = H D. It will now be very natural to add A K to both,

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so that FK = AD. But FK = rectangle CF, FG; or, since FH is a square, and therefore FG = FA, and AD = AB², we have this conclusion, CF, FA = AB². Still the learner has done nothing towards finding the point H. He must now refer to his geometry, and see whether in any previous proposition he has learnt anything of the properties of such a rectangle as CF, FA. And he finds (by Euclid ii. 6) a theorem, which, applied to his present case, tells him that if CA were bisected in E, and produced to F, then CF, FA + EA² = EF². Now he already knows that CF, FA = AB²; and, by adding EA², he has CF, FA + EA² = EA² + AB² = EB², if E and B be joined. Hence he has these two expressions: (1.) CF, FA + EA² = EB² from his original construction; and (2.) CF, FA + EA² = EF², from a previous proposition. But these two will coincide if EF = EB; hence he has, as the key to the complete solution of the required problem, instead of this fact, that EF must be equal to EB; *i.e.*, that upon AB a square ACDB must be described, that CA be bisected in E, and produced to F, so that EF = EB; on AF a square AFGH must be described, and then the point H wherein AB is divided is the one required by the problem: and by proceeding in the mode given in the proposition, *i.e.*, synthetically, he obtains the proper order of the construction and proof.

It is also very useful to lead youths to observe, with more distinctness than is usual, the propositions which are converse to each other; and to distinguish those which are proved by the direct method, from those which require the *reductio ad absurdum* to prove them. And this is particularly to be done when one proposition is converse to two or more others, as in Euclid i. 27, 28, 29, where the last is the converse of the two former, these two being in reality three propositions. And the learner should distinctly see the following truths:—

(1.) If a line falls on two other lines, and makes (α) the alternate angles equal; *or* (β) the exterior angle equal to the interior and opposite on the same side; *or* (γ) the two interior angles equal to two right angles,—then from *any one* of these data the lines will be known to be parallel. (2.) Conversely, if the lines are parallel, then α, β, γ are *all* true at the same time, as shown in the 29th proposition; and one cannot be true without the others being true also. An apt illustration of this converse, of one against three, may be given by taking the case of three roads meeting at one point, where, if the traveller goes by any one of the roads, he may come to the central point; and therefore if he starts from the point, he may go along any one of the roads, or all of them in succession.

We may refer, in passing, to the error often made by beginners, who do not observe that in the 28th proposition the same result is proved *twice* from the data which we have called (β) and (γ). It is often supposed that the former part of the proposition is to be allowed to prove the latter part, whereas the latter is a fresh commencement, as though it were an independent proposition, as indeed it is. All this is of course very evident to any careful teacher, but it is by no means equally so to the ordinary learner; and it is worth while that the teacher should find out what is the cause of the continual failure in the boy's

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power of producing his work well, so that he may exterminate the failure, by uprooting the erroneous principles the novice is entertaining. And in teaching that these three data can, any one of them, prove the existence of parallel lines, a little attention to the order in which α, β, γ come in the propositions will show that the property of parallelism derived from the equality of the alternate angles is the first in order of proof; and the rest follows by very simple inference, in fact by an almost instinctive use of the property of equality in vertical angles.

We will now pass on to algebra. In commencing to teach this subject, the instructor finds his great difficulty to be an exaggerated idea in the mind of the learner as to the novelty of the operations which he is now called upon to perform. True, if the pupil be of an inquiring spirit, novelty will have its charms; and it is highly desirable that there should be pointed out to him problems which he may be told can be solved by the veriest tyro. But many parts of algebra present no such attraction; and if the absence of any new power in these unattractive operations can be compensated for by any other considerations, they are well worth examination and attention.

Now, though it is a truism to every competent teacher of algebra that algebra is only arithmetic generalized, yet it is necessary to point this out to learners, and to let them see that if the science of numbers were taught them upon strictly philosophical principles, it would be done by first putting before them the general and widely comprehensive theorems of algebra; and then, in the general results which appeared under the various forms of algebraical notation, we should insert the particular cases of the Arabic figures, and obtain a set of particular results. And the superior power of this arrangement of deriving the particular from the general would be manifest, if not from general principles, yet from any simple example, wherein the result would exhibit an assemblage of symbols bearing evidence of the sources from which that result was derived; and would admit of being applied to an indefinite number of similar arithmetical examples, by the simple substitution of some or all of the digits in place of the algebraical symbols. A single arithmetical result, on the other hand, proceeding from a set of arithmetical data, similar in principle to those presented in the algebraical data, suggests by its form no idea of the elements from which it was derived, and no trace of the process whereby it was deduced from those elements.

The pupil must be shown that it is only his weakness in not being able to comprehend at first the ideas of a pounds and b shillings, as well as £2 and 5s., which renders him unable to grasp the above general results; and that it is in deference to this weakness that we teach the particular result first, and strive to rise to the general formula afterwards. The same examples will illustrate the two principles now mentioned, which in few words are these, that arithmetic contains such a germ of algebra as should lead an adept in it readily to fall into algebraical notation; and that there is a palpable superiority in algebraical as compared with arithmetical results, in that each one is applicable to a multitude of similar cases, and often indicates by its form

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the operations that have been wrought to obtain that result. For example, $a + \frac{b}{c} = \frac{ac+b}{c}$ may be shown to be a most familiar process, when we observe that, in reducing 7¾d. to farthings or fourths of a penny, we have really been reducing the mixed number $7\frac{3}{4}$ to the improper fraction $\frac{31}{4}$; and the above algebraical result shows more palpably the nature of the process.

Another example,—in fact one of the same kind, though not apparently so to a beginner,—is the addition of simple algebraical fractions together, involving, of course, the finding of the least common multiple of the denominators, and the reduction of the fractions to the least common denominator. Thus, if it were required to exhibit the result of $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} + \frac{e}{f}$; as soon as the learner knew that ab meant the product of a and b, he could work the above example precisely as in arithmetic. He would see that the common denominator was bdf; and in order that $\frac{a}{b}$ might have that denominator, the numerator and denominator must be multiplied by df; similarly, those of $\frac{c}{d}$ must be multiplied by bf, and of $\frac{e}{f}$ by bd; so that the three fractions become $\frac{adf+bcf+bcd}{bdf}$, a result which clearly indicates the process which has produced it. He would now, perhaps, inquire whether he could bring this expression into smaller compass; and the teacher's answer will show him, that it is the very fact that these three numerators do not amalgamate into *one*, which enables him to learn, from inspection of the result, the method by which that result has been obtained; and generally, that in proportion as *any* algebraical result can be condensed into a simpler form, so does it lose its trace of the elements from which it sprung, and is therefore less fitted to be a pattern from which other examples in arithmetic can have their solutions deduced. And in teaching the process of addition of fractions in arithmetic, it may be readily shown that the same power has really been exercised upon a small scale, and unwittingly, before the idea of a fraction ever entered the mind of the learner. Thus, the fact that the pupil has added ½d. and ¼d., and written ¾d. as the result, may, by a slight analysis of the process employed, be shown to embrace the principle of the least common denominator; also, of multiplying numerator and denominator of a fraction by the same quantity without altering the value; also, of adding fractions by addition of the numerators alone, thereby including the definitions of the numerator and denominator as expressing respectively the number of parts taken and the kind of parts. Lastly, in adding ¼d. and ¼d., and expressing the result, ²⁄₄d., as ½d., we have a further principle implied, that fractions may be reduced to lower terms or simpler forms, by dividing numerator and denominator by the same quantity.

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A few similar examples may be adduced, especially illustrative of the principle that one formula may embrace many arithmetical imitations of it. Thus, the general expression $(x+y)(x-y) = x^2-y^2$, may be shown to embrace many multiplication sums, which the learner would not have thought of solving by the aid of algebra. As a very simple case, 99×101 may be seen to be $(100-1)(100+1) = 100^2-1^2 = 10{,}000-1 = 9999$; or, taking a less manifest one, $73 \times 67 = (70+3)(70-3) = 4900-9 = 4891$.

The various results of arithmetic and geometric progression furnish simple but beautiful instances of easy formulæ solving many interesting arithmetical questions. And if the instructor writes down two rows of digits, say from 1 to 9, under each other, but in reverse order, and adds them up, he will soon show his pupil that the sum of these digits $= \frac{9(1+9)}{2}$, being a step towards the general form, $S = (a+l)\frac{n}{2}$.

In the above remarks we may have said nothing new to the thoroughly skilful teacher, and have said some things which may not be necessary to the apt scholar. But there may be teachers who have struggled in vain to produce an effect commensurate with their exertions and good-will to their pupils; and there may be, and certainly are, learners whose school-days have been embittered by the inapt mode in which valuable truths have been put before them, and who in after life have come to see that there was a mine of intellectual wealth under their feet when they were boys, but which wanted the divining-rod of an intelligent explorer to point out to them where it lay and how to work it. If the heart of one desponding teacher is encouraged by these hints, and, through him, the soul of his listless pupils is aroused and encouraged, we shall not have written in vain.

FREDERICK CALDER.

V.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN FICTION.*

IT is the peculiarity of the novel of school life—one of the most recent developments of modern fiction—that its interest is independent of the fickleness and vicissitudes of Love. The authors of these works are perhaps right in thinking that this belongs to a later stage in life; though school-boys are almost proverbial for their susceptibility to the tender passion. However this may be, it is plain that the introduction of that element could hardly have suited the purpose of these books, which is to give a picture of the practice of public school life, and thereby to convey their views on its theory. There is often, at the same time, something very pure and noble in the attachment

* *St. Winifred's; or, the World of School.* Edinburgh: A. & C. Black. *Tom Brown's School Days.* Sixth Edition. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co.

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of school-boys; and to show that it affords sufficient interest for the purposes of fiction, we need only refer to the instances in the works before us,—witness that of Tom Brown and George Arthur, paralleled in *St. Winifred's* by that of Walter Evson and Arthur Eden.

As a novel, *Tom Brown's School-Days* is still the best, as it was the first work of its class. It is conspicuous for its hearty, dashing tone, its boyish manliness, its fulness of life and spirit; and it is at once a fair transcript of public school life, and has enough of other elements thrown into it to make it a well-balanced literary work. It, moreover, possesses the advantage of a real personal interest in the character of Dr. Arnold, the prince of modern schoolmasters, and of a definite locality, that of Rugby. *Tom Brown*, however, by no means exhausts the subject with which it deals; it is no part of its design to do so, for it is the author's aim to depict the general life of a public school, rather than to multiply incidents in detail. The last characteristic is the feature in which *St. Winifred's* most markedly differs from its predecessor. It deals more largely than *Tom Brown* with the daily occurrences of school life. There is hardly any feature of it which is not fully described; hardly a school-boy custom, feeling, or trick, which is not carefully recorded, somewhere in its pages. Consequently, there is less room for that by-play which in *Tom Brown* cloaks the advances of the ingenious advocate. There are other points of difference between the two books. The author of *St. Winifred's* expressly disclaims the identification of that school with any particular public school; and, so far as we know, there are in the book no known individual portraits. Then, if the tone of *St. Winifred's* is less daring and spirited than that of *Tom Brown*, it is also less dogmatic, less intolerant, and more reasonable. For, indeed, *St. Winifred's* is a most excellent and clever work, full of admirable character-painting, and of well-contrived incident, remarkable, moreover, for its unobtrusively earnest Christian tone. As a picture of public school life, it is, as we have indicated, most thorough and minute. It delineates numerous phases of boy-nature with commendable fidelity, treating, with equal fairness and boldness, of the vices and virtues for the development of which the public-school system affords such ample scope. The aim and intention of the book are most praiseworthy; and if it can only be secured that its juvenile readers shall follow the good and eschew the evil which it describes, its tendency cannot but be excellent. We express ourselves thus guardedly here, because the effect of these fictions of school life upon the minds of school-boys is a point on which we have serious doubts. We do not charge these books with failing to deal out even-handed justice, with failing to visit sin with its proper retribution, virtue with its due reward,—far less do we charge them with any positive encouragement of evil practices. Often, however, the connexion between the wrong-doing and the punishment is too remote, the link of cause and effect is too subtle, to catch the juvenile mind, especially when the punishment is not a single act, but a course of discipline. Then boys are so much the creatures of impulse, they are so apt to be carried away by what is pleasing at the time, they are, moreover, so

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ready to convince themselves that the retribution will not be deserved, and will not follow in their case, that the chances are all in favour of their being fascinated by a wine-party at midnight, by smoking in the corridors, or by a clever practical joke, even though it be a little cruel. We have the less hesitation in entering this caution against the too free use of these books, because we have been assured of more than one instance in which boys, as well as schools, have been demoralised by aping the practices in which their publication had initiated them.

We believe, at the same time, that both teachers and parents may learn many valuable lessons of discipline, of forbearance, of discretion, from such a book as *St. Winifred's*. There are in its pages striking and instructive pictures of resolution bravely struggling with unpopularity and injustice, of perseverance nobly resisting the beginnings of evil, in spite of bullying and persecution, of virtue waning and recovered, of strong character unflinching in the day of temptation. In treating these cases, we must add that the author shows a rare insight into, and a tender sympathy with boy-nature, as well as a just appreciation of wholesome and judicious discipline. Certainly the public schools have no reason to complain of this expositor of their system. He is possessed of competent knowledge of what he describes, keen observation, a sincere and earnest nature, and he acts on the principle that if he shall "nothing extenuate," neither shall he "set down aught in malice."

But it is, after all, terrible to think of the risks which a father incurs for his son when he sends him, all unfledged and inexperienced, to encounter such enemies as we find described in these books; and we believe we are entitled to take them as fair and not unfavourable exponents of public school life. The theory of that life as avowed in both of them is, that it throws each boy upon his own resources, to fight his own way by the strength of the principle that is in him, aided by whatever of good there may be in his fellow-citizens in this miniature commonwealth, tempted and assaulted by whatever there is of evil. Squire Brown puts this plainly in his parting words to Tom: "Remember you are going, at your own earnest request, to be chucked into this great school, like a young bear, with all your troubles before you—earlier than we should have sent you perhaps. If schools are what they were in my time, you'll see a great many cruel blackguard things done, and hear a deal of foul bad talk. But never fear. You tell the truth, keep a brave and kind heart, and never listen to or say anything you wouldn't have your mother and sister hear, and you'll never feel ashamed to come home, or we to see you." There is, we cannot help feeling, not a little Brutus-like heroism in a man thus "chucking" his son into the midst of "cruel blackguard things," and "foul bad talk," with nothing but this very excellent advice to keep him for years from joining in the one or the other. For, be it remembered, the "things" and the "talk" referred to are not in the school without being of it, but are practised by boys who have themselves been "chucked" into the school, with the same good advices that Tom received. There they have to sink or swim, according as strength is

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given or fails them. Before inquiring whether this ordeal is not needlessly hard, and the risk unnecessarily great, let us see what the evils are whose existence is admitted by the advocates of the public school system themselves.

First, there is *bullying*, which in *Tom Brown* takes the shapes, not only of private cruelty and torture, but of "tossing," of unlawful "fagging," and lastly the refined form of "roasting," the victim being Tom himself, and the consequences proving nearly fatal. In *St. Winifred's* the instances of "bullying" are more minutely detailed. First, we have Harpour and Jones systematically maltreating "poor little Eden" to such an extent that he confides to Walter Evson (the hero of the book): "I sometimes wish I were dead myself, to have it all over." Under their threats and torture, he allows himself to be let down by a sheet from the dormitory window over night, to go to a blackguard smuggler's for gin for the bullies! And the effects of this course of treatment are thus described:—"Walter saw that they had played on this child's natural terrors with such refinement of cruelty, that fear had become the master principle in his mind; they had only to touch that spring, and he obeyed them mechanically like a puppet, and because of his very fear, was driven to do things that might well cause genuine fear, till he lived in such a region of increasing fear and dread, that Walter's only surprise was that he had not been made an idiot already." When he disobeyed their orders "he was soused with water, pelted with shoes, and beaten with slippers." Then he was "taken prisoner," that is to say, while asleep a string was tied round his large toe, and pulled violently till it awoke him with a yell. Next he was "frightened,"—a process which is thus described:—"He was sleeping more soundly and sweetly than he had done for a fortnight, when a blaze of light, flashing suddenly upon his eyes, made him start up in his bed. . . . At the foot of his bed stood a figure in white, with a hideous deformed head, blotched with scarlet; bending over him was another white figure, with an enormous black face, holding over its head a shining hand. In an instant the boy fell back, pale as death, uttering a shriek so shrill and terrible, so full of wildness and horror, that every other boy in the dormitory sprang up, alarmed and wide awake." He turned ashy pale, and after several sharp screams fell into a swoon so deep, that he had to be carried to the sick-room and put under the Doctor. From the effects of this "fright" he never wholly recovered.

The victim of "bullying" in the second part of *St. Winifred's* is Walter's brother, Charlie, who wails to his brother, "I *know* they'll make me do wrong some day. I wish I were at home. I wish I might leave. I get thrashed and kicked and abused every night, Walter, and almost all night long." The occasion of this maltreatment is thus described:—

"The Noelites were accustomed now and then to have a grand evening 'spread,' as they called it, and when they had finished this supper, which was usually supplied by Dan, they generally began smoking, an amusement which they could enjoy after the lights were out. The smokers used to sit in the long corridor, which, as I have said, led to their dormitory, and the scout was always posted to

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warn them of approaching danger; but as they did not begin operations till the master had gone his nightly rounds, and were very quiet about it, there was not much danger of their being disturbed. Yet although the windows of the corridor and dormitory were all left wide open, and every other precaution was taken, it was impossible to get rid of the fumes of tobacco so entirely as to avoid all chance of detection. They had, indeed, bribed the servants to secresy, but what they feared was being detected by some master. The Noelites, therefore, of that dormitory had been accustomed to agree that if they were questioned by any master about the smell of smoking, they would all deny that any smoking had taken place. The other nine boys in the dormitory, with the doubtful exception of Elgood, had promised that they would stick to this assertion in case of their being asked. The question was, 'Would Charlie promise the same thing?' If not, the boys felt doubly insecure—insecure about the stability of their falsehood, and the secresy of their proceedings.

"And Charlie Evson, of course, refused to promise this. Single-handed he fought this battle against the other boys in his house, and in spite of solicitation, coaxing, entreaty, threats, and blows, steadily declared that he was no tell-tale, that he had never mentioned anything which had gone on in the house, but that *if he were directly asked* whether a particular act had taken place or not, he would still keep silence, but *could not and would not* tell a lie."

Night after night they attempt by every form of threat and cruel annoyance to prevail upon him to sign the bond of their falsehood. But he persistently and nobly refuses. At length they resolved upon severer measures, and Mackworth, the head bully, puts the question,

"Now, will you sign?"

"*Never*," said Charlie, in a low but firm tone.

"Then"——

"*Not with the cane, not with the cane*, Mackworth," cried several voices in agitation, but not in time to prevent the cane descending with heavy hand across the child's back.

"Charlie's was one of those fine, nervous, susceptible temperaments, which feel every physical sensation, and every mental emotion, with tenfold severity. During the whole of this scene, so painfully anticipated, in which he had stood alone among a group of boys, whose sole object seemed to be to show their hatred, and who were twice as strong as himself, his feelings had been highly wrought; and though he had had many opportunities of late to train his delicate organization into manly endurance, yet the sudden anguish of this unexpected blow quite conquered him. A thrilling cry broke from his lips, and the next moment, when the cane again tore his shoulders, a fit of violent hysteria supervened, which alarmed the brutes who were trying to master his noble resolution."

It tends very much to perpetuate "bullying" that it is what we may call "preserved" by the current law in public schools against "telling" or "peaching," which the author of *Tom Brown* denounces as one of the "sneaking tendencies" of private schools. The author of *St. Winifred's*, however, does not quite sympathize with this notion; for when Walter is tauntingly asked whether he is "going to sneak" by reporting Harpour, he replies—"To sneak—no; to tell the head of the school—yes." But in the case of "roasting" above referred to, Tom could not be prevailed upon to tell even the housekeeper how or from whom he received his wounds. "Not a word could the housekeeper extract from either of them, and though the Doctor (Arnold) knew all that she knew that morning, he never knew any more." But the notion is that it is sneaking not only to tell a master, but even to seek redress in the proper quarter,—from the monitors. Old Brooke, the head of the school, tells them, "It's very little kindness for the sixth

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to interfere generally—you youngsters mind that. You'll be all the better football players for learning to stand it, and to take your own parts, and fight it through;" therefore they are not "to come to us with their fingers in their eyes, telling tales." Then in the case of Eden in *St. Winifred's*, we are told that "all this was going on under the very eyes of many thoroughly noble boys, and conscientious masters; and yet they never saw or noticed it, and looked on Eden as an idle and unprincipled little sloven."

The first of the above extracts will have indicated some of the other vices which are in vogue at St. Winifred's. We have already referred to "poor little Eden's" hazardous night raids upon Dan's for spirits for the bullies in his room. In the second part, this practice reaches more alarming dimensions. There Harpour refers to the "stunning tap at Dan's," and the vices of the Noelites are thus catalogued,—"the bad language, the school trickeries and deceits, the dodges for breaking rules and escaping punishments, the agreed-on lies to avoid detection, the suppers, and brandy and smoking parties, and false keys to get out after lock-up." And in *Tom Brown*, old Brooke, in his address after the football match, says: "Then there's fuddling about in the public-house, and drinking bad spirits, and punch, and such rot-gut stuff. That won't make good drop-kicks or chargers of you, take my word for it. You get plenty of good beer here, and that's enough for you; and drinking isn't fine or manly, whatever some of you may think of it." And the end of Flashman the bully was that he "became beastly drunk," in that state was found by one of the masters, and was sent home next morning.

To this list must be added *card-playing* and *betting* (though the author of *Tom Brown* trusts and believes "that lotteries and betting-books have gone out"), and habitual profane *swearing*, of which there are frequent instances given in both the books under notice. In both also *fighting* is a fully recognised "institution," with a strange coincidence in the region set apart for it. In *St. Winifred's* we are early introduced to "the milling-ground behind the chapel;" and in *Tom Brown*, East, his *cicerone* on his first day at Rugby, tells him "that's the chapel you see, and there just behind it is the place for fights." In *St. Winifred's*, the notion (and with boys notion is law) seems to be, that if it was "a fair fight," even monitors had "no right to stop it;" and a monitor on one occasion replies, "I won't stop it unless there's good reason, though I think it's gone on long enough." And in *Tom Brown*, Arnold is represented as having, on one occasion, seen a fight going on, and as having satisfied himself with telling a monitor that it was not to be resumed, and that it was the duty of monitors "to stop all fights in future at once,"—for it is the author's praise of the Doctor that "he knew better than any one when to look, and when to see nothing." On this subject of fighting, however, the author is hardly at one with the head-master; for the advice of the former to boys is—"Learn to box, then, as you learn to play cricket and foot-ball. Not one of you will be the worse, but very much the better for learning to box well. Should you never have to use it in

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earnest, there's no exercise in the world so good for the temper, and for the muscles of the back and legs."

Such is the sea of troubles into which a tender and innocent boy is "chucked," fresh from the fostering and supporting influences of home. Hitherto, he has himself been subjected to wholesome restraint, and those about him have been subjected to the same. He has been kindly and considerately dealt with; has had a superior over him, whose authority was felt, who would see that he had justice done to him, and that he did not act unjustly by others. Now, his temper is to be tried, his moral principle is to be tested, his powers of endurance are to be strained to their utmost tension, while he encounters bullying, with the variations of double tossing, frightening, taking prisoner, and roasting. He may have to listen to swearing and other bad language; and it will do him good to "learn to box." He must become a willing or unwilling partner in drinking, smoking, and card-parties, carried on without the knowledge or suspicion of the master to whose care he is intrusted. He is to be threatened into lying, and thrashed into serving the devil. He is to take his chance of over-fagging, or of unlawful fagging from "big fellows of the wrong sort," such as "the big fifth-form boys" in *Tom Brown*, who were "a sporting and drinking set," and who "soon began to usurp power, and to fag the little boys, as if they were præpostors, and to bully and oppress any who showed signs of resistance."

"And then it is part of the system, that if he is "frightened" into a deep swoon, or "roasted" till he faints, he mustn't "peach." It is "sneaking" to appeal for aid to recognised and responsible authorities. The very worst vices may be going on in a master's house, without his knowing anything of them; and the system does not allow him to take even such means of acquainting himself with the on-goings of his boys, as it would be grossly culpable for a father not to take in the case of his own sons. Thus, in the case of Charles Evson, Mr. Noel was evidently sincerely interested in his younger boys, "whom he would gladly have shielded from temptation to the very utmost of his power, *had he but known that of which he was unhappily so ignorant*—the bad state of things among the boys under his care." To be sure, there are the monitors, whose duty it is to see that bullying is kept under, and that fagging is legitimately exacted; but it is esteemed unmanly for the oppressed to appeal even to them. We have already heard old Brooke, in *Tom Brown*, expressly denouncing the cowardice which led "the small boys to come to us with their fingers in their eyes, telling tales." And similarly in *St. Winifred's*, Dimock, one of the sixth-form, tells them: "You younger fellows know very well that we monitors extremely dislike to interfere, that we do so only on the rarest occasions, and that we are always most anxious to avoid caning."

Now, the question we have to ask is, is it necessary that the younger fellows should "fight it through," that they should be exposed in such a battle at all, even if they had strength to stand it? What good end is served by it? We are told that it is training them to true manliness; that it is the only way yet devised of making a boy grow into

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"a brave, helpful, truth-telling Englishman, and a gentleman and a Christian," that it is serving apprenticeship to the world, and that it is to this that the upper classes of Englishmen owe their nobility and strength of character, as well as their hopeful, self-reliant tone and bearing.

Now, the necessity of such a system can be established by proving that its end is fully accomplished, and that it cannot be accomplished in any other way. We deny both. Much is said of the successes of public schools; and the great men they have turned out are pointed to with just pride. But what of the failures? Considering their numbers, their appliances, their wealth, and the social position and influence of their pupils, the remarkable thing is, not that they have produced so many great men, but that they have not produced more good ones. Of the great men we hear much; of the failures little or nothing, unless when some famous cases blaze out in our law courts, and keep the town talking for a week. The average yearly attendance at Eton is considerably above 800 boys. The curriculum extending over six years, at least 100 must leave every year. In the course of one generation, therefore, Eton must send out between three and four thousand boys,—boys, be it remembered, who inherit, or should possess the greatest advantages both of blood and of culture. It would be interesting to know how many of these become "brave, helpful, truth-telling Englishmen;" how many become the inane, insipid "swells" of modern society; how many sink into insignificance; and how many positively "go to the bad." But it certainly would not be surprising and could not be claimed as creditable in any extraordinary degree, if even a score or two attained to first-rate distinction. In such a mass of Englishmen, there must, by nature, be a great amount of intellectual power, of force of character, of manly courage; intellect, character, and courage, which will make way in spite of all obstacles, and under any system. There is a sense in which blood seems, like water, to rise to its own level. And that some natures are strong enough to bear the ordeal of public school life, while others are refined by passing through its fire, we are not so foolish or so blind as to deny. What we condemn is the notion that it is absolutely necessary to make it a part,—nay, the chief part,—of school training, that every boy should have to do battle for his own hand, not with ordinary and wholesome difficulties merely, but with such demons of vice and tyranny as are admitted by their friends to prevail in public schools.

We hold, moreover, that it is against nature for *boys* to be so tried and tempted. They will have to encounter trial and temptation soon enough in the world. It is, or should be, the aim of school life to train them for it, not to throw them prematurely into it. It is like "chucking" a few hundred boys into a rough sea to teach them to swim; a fraction of them may succeed, but to the vast majority it must prove a hazardous, to many a fatal experiment. Fighting may be the best discipline; but it would surely be considered "wasteful and ridiculous excess," to bring on a war that recruits might be trained. For it is no "sham-fight" into which public school-boys are thrust; but a real

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warfare, with the world, and the devil, and the flesh; a warfare in which victories are gained, but in which also characters are ruined, and souls lost. It may be said that the gain is worth the sacrifice; that no victory was ever won without the loss of brave lives. We reply that this account cannot be balanced until we know as much about the sacrifice as we know about the gain. But that is exactly what we never do know. The amount of good that comes out of the system is that by which it has been judged hitherto; the amount of evil it does, remains an unknown quantity. But we further hold that the sacrifice is not necessary, and is therefore a wanton waste. We see no reason why even the Flashmans, Harpours, Joneses, and Mackworths—the representatives in the novel of school life of cowardly bullies and embryo rakes—should be quite thrown overboard, and given up as lost. There may, doubtless, be bad boys everywhere, and under every system. The question is, under what system will bad boys do least harm to their neighbours, and get most good to themselves? Not, we fear, under the public school system; for that system recognises evil as part of its disciplinary machinery. It is the resistance to be met; without which, indeed, hardihood, manliness, endurance, and the other virtues could not be developed and exercised. There is, however, an offset to this, a recognised authority to keep it in check, that is the authority of the monitors, of whose position, as an essential element in the public school system, it is time that we should speak a little more particularly.

We shall take our definition and exposition of this part of the system from the more recent of the works before us. Tracy, in *St. Winifred's*, asks, "Who are the monitors? and what right have they to interfere?" Power, the champion of monitorial authority, replies:—

"The monitors are our school-fellows, and are simply representatives of the most mature form of public school opinion. They have all been lower boys; they have all worked their way up to the foremost place; they are, in short, the oldest, the cleverest, the strongest, and the wisest among us. And their right depends on an authority voluntarily delegated to them by the masters, by our parents, and by ourselves—a right originally founded on justice and common sense, and venerable by very many years of prestige and of success. At any rate, a fellow who behaves as Harpour has done, has the *least* right to complain of this exercise of a higher authority. If he had a right—and he has no right except brute strength, if that be a right—to bully, beat, torment, and perhaps injure for life a poor little inoffensive child, and by doing so to render the name of the school infamous, I maintain that the monitors, who have the interest of the school most at heart, who are ranged *ex officio* on the side of truth, of justice, and of honour, have infinitely more right to thrash him for it. Supposing that there were no monitors, what would the state of the school be? above all, what would be the condition of the younger and weaker boys? they would be the absolutely defenceless prey of a most odious tyranny."

The means which the monitors possess for enforcing this authority not only extend to the right of publicly inflicting corporal chastisement, but even to the striking off the list of a boy's name, and ordering him to leave the school on a few hours' notice (*St. Winifred's*, p. 323). The pupils of the school thus form a commonwealth, holding the government in their own hands, able, through the senior boys, to carry

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punishment to its utmost extremity. Now, the advantage of securing the influence of the oldest and best-disposed boys on the side of right and of law cannot be over-estimated. It is not only a benefit to the school, but an immense boon to the senior boys themselves, inasmuch as it makes them thoughtful, and fills them with the sense both of responsibility and of duty. And we do not question the discretion with which in general the power of the monitors is exercised in our public schools. But we do question the propriety or wisdom of the masters denuding themselves of that authority which, in so far as they stand *in loco parentis*, belongs of right to them, and of delegating it to those who cannot yet have learned to govern themselves. Would a parent do this with his own children? would he be "training them up in the way they should go," if he made the experiment? Would it not be said that he was flinching from his responsibility, shrinking from his duty, "taking matters easily," and avoiding the odium which he would incur by the enforcement of his God-given authority? . . . .

Apart from this view of the question, however, let the system be tried by its results. Now, it happens that in both the books under review, we find the monitorial authority defied, and an intestine war raging between the best-disposed monitors on the one side, and the bullies and their minions and abettors on the other. No doubt the power of the monitors in the end asserts its superiority; but the war is attended by an amount of demoralization and of positive vice which it is fearful to think of as having its prototype in real school-life. Here, again, we are told that the gain is worth the sacrifice. Again we repeat that the extent of the sacrifice is never known; and we deny that it is necessary, or that more good cannot be attained under the due exercise of magisterial authority, and that with much less attendant evil. Moreover, the submission to a school-fellow must naturally be attended with a degree of irritation and discontentment which the submission to a master will not excite. It was this feeling that rankled in the breast of Harpour, when, on being ordered by the head-monitor to "stand out," he replied, "I won't. I'll see you d——d first." No wonder, therefore, that *émeutes*, such as those which form so lively a feature in educational fictions, are so apt to occur. It is an authority which from its very nature must be fluctuating; for while masters are more or less permanent, monitors change from year to year, and each new set requires to fight its own battle for the establishment of its own authority. Then how disastrous the consequences of the appearance of a disaffected monitor are, let the career of Kenrick of *St. Winifred's* testify. It is as when a regiment fraternizes with the mob whom it is the duty of the army to overawe; as when one sworn to maintain law and order joins himself with rebels or with thieves. The wickedness and brutality which are made quite legitimately to flow from this one boy's defection, are very fearful to contemplate. And the strangest feature of the case is that the masters not only do not trouble themselves or interfere in the matter, but appear to be utterly ignorant of the wretched state of those for whose right up-bringing the public holds them responsible. But the concealment which leads to this is held to be a point of

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honour; so far from being so, it seems to us that the habit herein implied of knowing of evil and helping to prevent its discovery, is both degrading and dishonouring in the utmost degree. Thus the masters are ignorant, the monitors are "unwilling to interfere," and it is "sneaking" to "peach;" so that, after all, we are brought back again to old Brooke's whole duty of a school-boy,—to "fight it through,"—or to "perish in the attempt."

Let us say, before concluding, that it has been no part of our design to exalt any other class of institutions at the expense of public schools. Apart from the excesses to which we have referred, there is much in these schools that claims our regard. We fear, too, that there are many private schools in which vice in every form is often as prevalent as in public schools in their worst state. And much as we have questioned the power of the public-school system of discipline adequately to check the precocity in vice of the rising generation, we would denounce much more severely that excessive parental indulgence which is its chief cause; and most severely of all the conduct of those private schools which, while encouraging the lax liberty of a rampant Tom-Brownism, interpose no such check as even the monitorial system affords, to act as a counter weight, or wholesome corrective.

It must also be observed that we have said nothing in this paper of the actual teaching and proper school-work of these institutions. The works on which we have based our remarks afford little material for this view of the matter. We have therefore confined ourselves for the present to public-school life in fiction. Perhaps the appearance of the Royal Commissioners' Report may ere long afford material for discussing other aspects of the subject.

VI.—SCHOOL BOTANY.

Reference was made in a former number of this Journal* to the labours of the late Professor Henslow of Cambridge in introducing the study of Botany into his village school at Hitcham. As they were attended with remarkable success, and as the subject of the teaching of Natural Science in schools is beginning to receive particular attention, we propose in this article to describe somewhat in detail, from the materials within our reach, the system which Professor Henslow pursued. The characteristic feature of that system was a "Floral Schedule" which he drew up, consisting of a blank form, the spaces to be filled in with botanical terms, describing the structure of the flower, and the classification of any plant that may be put before the students. We shall, therefore, make this "Schedule" the basis of our description, and, in connexion with it, furnish our readers with an outline of procedure, in order that teachers, or others interested in edu-

* Vol. ii. p. 225.

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cation, may know "how to begin." The departments which the Professor selected as the basis of botanical instruction were Structural and Systematic Botany, Physiological Botany being introduced only on particular occasions. The teacher is at liberty to use his discretion as to what extent it may be advisable to instruct his pupils in the last-named branch.

Structural and systematic botany go hand in hand, both being taught together; and the method adopted was to draw attention to the most elementary condition of a plant, and therefrom deduce the primary classification. For instance, the teacher would have a number of beans soaked for half an hour in hot water, so as to make their skins easily removable, and placing one in the hand of each pupil, he would direct them to follow his example. By stripping off the seed skin, the "embryo" or young plant is at once exposed. The pupils would then be told to separate it into its two halves, and that the name given to them was seed-leaves (cotyledons); the teacher would then bid them observe the little bud (plumule) lying between the cotyledons or seed-leaves, and the little projection (radicle) appearing at the back of the cotyledons; the former passing into the stem, from which the branches, leaves, and flowers are developed, while the latter becomes the root.

Having thus considered the structure of the most elementary condition of a plant, the teacher may at once proceed to show how all flowering plants are grouped into two great classes, according as the embryo contains two cotyledons, as in the bean, or only one, as in the Indian corn, adding that the names given to these classes are Dicotyledons and Monocotyledons respectively; while a third class, the plants of which never produce flowers, but whose process of propagation is carried on in a totally different way, are called Acotyledons. Here, then, we have a starting-point. No further instruction need at this stage be given in the manner of the growth of a plant, or in what are called the "conservative" organs, viz., root, stem, and leaves, which maintain the life of the plant. It is preferable to proceed at once to consider the "reproductive" organs, viz., the flower and its several parts.

As before, the teacher places a flower (say of the wallflower) in the hands of each of his pupils. Holding one himself, he removes the "sepals" of the "calyx," and bids them repeat the names after him, or record them in their note-books, as he thinks fit. He next removes the "petals" of the "corolla," then the "stamens," and lastly the "pistil." The sub-divisions of the stamens (filament and anther with pollen), and those of the pistil (stigma, style, and ovary with ovules) he may, at his discretion, delay mentioning until the next lesson, according to the capacity of his pupils. The explanation of the word "carpel," however, should decidedly be left until the other parts are thoroughly learned. The teacher may here tell his pupils that upon this plan or "type" all flowers are constructed; that of these four "whorls" (calyx, corolla, stamens, and pistils), although one or more may be wanting, their order of succession is never altered, and that it

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is mainly owing to the infinite variety of forms obtaining amongst these parts that so great a diversity exists in the floral world.

His pupils having now begun to distinguish the parts of flowers, the teacher may direct them how to fill up the first column of the "Floral Schedule," viz., to insert in the blank spaces the actual number of parts in each of the "floral whorls," as in the adjoining plan (taking the wallflower as our example). Removing each sepal of the calyx, the pupil observes that they are four in number, and therefore inserts that number opposite calyx sepals; similarly for the others.

	No.
Pistil	1
Stamens	6
Corolla petals	4
Calyx sepals	4

When this process of "dissection" is completed, the tyros may be instructed in classification, by being told that to each of the classes Dicotyledons and Monocotyledons there are two divisions, viz., angiospermous and gymnospermous to the former, petaloid and glumaceous to the latter. The meanings of the words must be explained and illustrated by familiar examples.

The pupils having by this time thoroughly learned all the parts of a flower, may proceed to fill in the second column of the Floral Schedule. For this purpose they are required to learn by heart the following prefixes and terminations, which may conveniently be made an evening lesson.

The Numerical Prefixes,	Combine with,
0. An-, A-	chlamydeous.
1. Mon-, Mono-	
2. Di-	phyllous.
3. Tri-	sepalous.
4. Tetr-a-	petalous.
5. Pent-a-	androus.
6. Hex-a-	
7. Hept-a-	gynous.
8. Oct-a-	adelphous.
9. Enne-a-	dynamous.
10. Dec-a-	
11. Endec-a-	
12. Dodec-a-	
To 20. Icos-a	
Many, ∞, * } Poly-	Syngenesious.

The second column of the Floral Schedule is headed "Cohesion, arrest;" the former word having reference to the manner in which the parts of the floral whorls are combined or "freely inserted," the latter to certain cases where parts or the whole of one or more floral whorls are undeveloped or "arrested." The method of filling up the second column is as follows:—The sepals of the calyx must be first removed; if they are distinct and separate, a word expressing their number is to be compounded and inserted opposite *ca. s.* For example, in the wallflower, the calyx has 4 separate sepals; therefore, the word would be *tetrasepalous.* Similarly for the corolla, as there are 4 free petals, the word *tetrapetalous* is to be used. The number of stamens is 6, so that

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the flower is said to be *hexandrous*. Lastly, the pistil has one style, therefore *monogynous* must be employed.

In the particular flower we have chosen, it will be found that of the six stamens, four are longer than the other two, and a word has been proposed to express that peculiarity, so that *tetradynamous* is to be inserted opposite *f*.

The 1st and 2d columns will now stand thus :—

	No.	Cohesion, Arrest.
p. / c.	1 / 2	Monogynous
st. / f. / a.	6	Hexandrous / Tetradynamous
co. p. / ca. s.	4 / 4	Tetrapetalous / Tetrasepalous

It will be observed that $\frac{p}{c}$ is in the place of *pistil* in the portion of the schedule given above. The *c* stands for *carpel*, so that opposite *p* is to be given the number of pistils, and opposite *c* the number of carpels; while the fraction $\frac{1}{2}$ shows that in this case it is a "*compound*" pistil (there being only one), but that it is made of 2 *cohering carpels*. In the Butter-cup (*Ranunculus*) 8|8 will have to be inserted, as in this case the number of carpels is *indefinite*, and they do not cohere together to make a single compound pistil, but each carpel forms a separate pistil of itself, hence called "*simple*;" so that pistils and carpels in this instance are synonymous.

The *f* and *a* under *st* need not be inserted unless there is any word to express some unusual structure concerning them.

The pupils having become familiar with the structure of several flowers, the teacher may proceed to describe the remaining classification, viz., the sections; thus, of the *division* Angiospermous, there are 4: Thalamifloral, Calycifloral, Corollifloral, and Incomplete; of the *division* Petaloid, there are 2 *sections:* Superior and Inferior.

These words may be first committed to memory before their meaning is explained; indeed, the thirteen "hard words" of botanical classification were made a "perseverance test" by the Professor in his village school, and no child was admitted into the volunteer corps of botanists until he or she could repeat and spell them correctly, as follows :—

Class.	Division.	Section.
1. Dicotyledons	1. Angiospermous	1. Thalamifloral. 2. Calycifloral. 3. Corollifloral. 4. Incomplete.
	2. Gymnospermous	
2. Monocotyledons	1. Petaloid	1. Superior. 2. Inferior.
	2. Glumaceous	
3. Acotyledons.		

We now proceed to the third column. This is headed "Adhesion, insertion;" the former word referring to the peculiarity in certain flowers of the parts of *different* whorls growing together (*adhesion*); the latter to their relative position, or "insertion," as it is called.

For this column, six words must be learnt and understood; namely,

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"superior" and "inferior," which refer to the ovary and calyx, or perianth;* "hypogynous," "epigynous," and "perigynous," which refer to the corolla and stamens; "epipetalous" and "gynandrous," which refer to the stamens alone.

If the calyx or perianth be monosepalous or monophyllous respectively, and form a cup, but completely filled, as it were, by the ovary to which it adheres, while the upper portions of the sepals (if present) seem to be growing from the summit of the ovary, or from the base of the style, the calyx or perianth is then called "*superior*," and the ovary "*inferior*." But if no adhesion exists at all, so that the pistil can be removed entire, the calyx or perianth being left behind *in statu quo*, then the ovary is "*superior*," and the calyx or perianth "*inferior*."

If the stamens or petals spring directly from the "floral receptacle" (the extremity of the flower-stalk which supports the "floral whorls") they are "*hypogynous*;" but if they grow more or less in contact with the calyx, they are "*perigynous*;" and if, the calyx being *superior*, the corolla or stamens seem to spring from the summit of the ovary, or at least from the line of junction between calyx and ovary, they are said to be "*epigynous*."

If, on the one hand, the stamens are inserted (*i.e.*, *adhere* by growth) upon the corolla, they become "*epipetalous*;" but if, on the other hand, they grow in contact with the style and stigma, so as to form a central column, they are termed "*gynandrous*."

These terms having been explained, the third column may be filled up.

Beginning with the lowest (outermost) floral whorls, the sepals of the calyx are found capable of being removed separately, leaving the other parts intact; hence "inferior" must be inserted opposite *ca. s.*, and superior opposite $\frac{p.}{c.}$. The petals of the corolla and the stamens are likewise removed: they are found to grow quite freely, having contracted no adhesion whatever; hence "hypogynous" must be written opposite *st.* as well as opposite *co. p.*

Our schedule of the wall-flower, together with its classification, which must be inserted in every case, will now stand thus:—

	No.	Cohesion, Arrest.	Adhesion, Insertion.	
				Class, Dicotyledon
$\frac{p.}{c.}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	Monogynous	Superior	Division, Angiospermous
				Section, Thalamifloral
st.	6	Hexandrous	Hypogynous	
f.		Tetradynamous		Order, Crucifers
				Genus, Wall-flower
co. p.	4	Tetrapetalous	Hypogynous	
ca. s.	4	Tetrasepalous	Inferior	Species, Common

* The word "Perianth" was adopted by Prof. H. to express exclusively the outer whorls (calyx and corolla) of the division Petaloid of Monocotyledons. He found it

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The completion of the schedule by the more advanced pupils consists in recording four characters of the leaf, viz., Composition, Insertion, Position, and Stipulation; and two characters of the Inflorescence, viz., the name given to its general character and its bracteation.

We here subjoin the complete terminology requisite for filling up the form of Floral Schedule. The figures indicate the number of *marks* assigned whenever the corresponding words are correctly given:—

Fl.	No.	Cohesion, Arrest.	Adhesion, insertion.	Classification.
Pistil .	1	a-, etc.-gynous, . 2	Superior or Inferior, . . . 2	Class, . 1
Carpel .	3			Division, 2
Stamen Filament Anther	1	an-, etc.-androus, . 2 mon-, etc.-adelphous, 3 di-, tetra-, dynamous, 3 syngenesious, . . 3	Hypo-, etc.-gynous, 4 Epipetalous, . . 4 Gynandrous, . . 4	Section, 3 Order, . 4
Co. petals Ca. sepals	1 1	a-, etc.-petalous, . 2 a-.etc.-sepalous, . 2	Hypo-, etc.-gynous, 4	Genus, . 3
Perianth leaves	1	a-, etc.-phyllous, . 2	Inferior or Superior, . . 2	Species, . 2

Leaf.				Inflorescence.	
Composition,	1	Insertion, .	1	Character, ...	1
Position, . .	1	Stipulation, .	1	Bracteation, ...	1

Such is a brief description of the "Floral Schedule." Although this is the main and most important *educational* feature in the late Professor's system of teaching botany; yet it possesses an *instructional* department as well, of no mean value. This consists in what he called the "Herbarium Lecture." Before, however, giving some particulars on this part of our subject, we must allude to a few of the botanical appliances of the Hitcham Village School.

1. *The Village Plant List.*—This is a printed list of all known wild flowers, together with a few trees, firs and equisetums, growing in the parish. This is suspended in the class-room; the orders, genera, and species being arranged according to Bentham's Hand-book of the British Flora. The orders are so bracketed as to supply subjects for thirty-two lectures. Some orders (*e.g.* Leguminanths)* are so pregnant with information and instructive matter that they singly furnish mate-

convenient to limit its meaning to this usage, calling its parts "leaves;" for in the majority of cases no proper distinction can be drawn between the two sets of leaves. In Dicotyledons, when the calyx and corolla cannot be distinguished (as in Anemone), the whorl is to be called the calyx, notwithstanding its being brightly coloured like a corolla, which in this case is wanting.

* The termination *anths* was adopted by Prof. H. for the great majority of the orders, thus *anglicizing* them, and rendering them easier for children's memories and his own.

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rial for one, or even two lectures. Others again are so barren, that two or even three orders may be taken together for a single lecture.

2. *The Village Herbarium.*—This is contained in a small deal cabinet; the specimens (chiefly dried by the elder children) consisting of all the Hitcham wild-flowers, and named according to the Plant List. They are required for the lectures, as also for consultation by the 1st class botanists in the school.

3. *The Flower Stand.*—This consists of two tiers of phials arranged along one side of the class-room; a label, having the name, etc., written upon it, is inserted in front of each. The children are required to keep them supplied with fresh examples. The pupil who brings the first specimen of a plant each year receives two marks, and the name of the plant is erased from the list suspended in the room.

4. *Diagrams.*—Those in constant use, and of which one at least is always suspended in the class-room for consultation, were prepared by Prof. H., drawn by W. Fitch, and published by Messrs. Day & Son.

5. There are a few other requisites of less importance, which will be found described elsewhere.*

After *demonstrating* the flowers which have afforded materials for the exercises, the teacher proceeds with the Herbarium Lecture. Some one species, or more if there be sub-orders, is taken as a *type* of the order; and, if it be possible, as is generally the case, to secure living specimens, the structure is discussed by question and answer, interspersed with explanations and remarks. All the village species of the genera in the orders are referred to, the children being required to name them. Any remarkable deviations from the normal structure in British and foreign genera may be observed, and the localities of such foreign species may form subjects for geographical questioning, or biblical allusions (*e.g.* flax, mentioned in Exodus; the olive, from Noah's Ark to Gethsemane, etc.) Historical references are not unfrequent (*e.g.* introduction of the potato, tobacco, the mummy wheat, and Indian corn, etc.); while these subjects themselves frequently afford abundant material of instructive information; but this, both in extent and choice, must depend in a great measure upon the capacity and discrimination of the teacher.

A fear has often been expressed that teachers, especially of village schools, will not in general be found willing to take up an extra subject, as botany, and endure the drudgery of teaching themselves before they undertake to teach others. This fear we hope to be illusory. The subject is undeniably most attractive, and the method here given, viz. "working at schedules," will be found to render it far more so than any prolonged study of books and flowers can make it. A teacher may follow the Professor's suggestion, and candidly tell his pupils that he is a learner together with them, while his superior knowledge and training will soon make him outstrip his companions, so that in a year's time at most he may very well entitle himself the "Botanical Master."

GEO. HENSLOW.

* In addition to the above mentioned, the school-map of the world for geographical reference, and a Bible for biblical allusions, must be placed near at hand.

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VII.—HOMERIC TRANSLATIONS.*

About this time last year, our attention was drawn to the appearance in the literary field of three or four new candidates for the palm of translating Homer. Mr. Dart, a gentleman whose name stands high at the Chancery Bar, had found leisure enough to vary dry legal study with well-intended efforts to naturalize Homer's hexameter on this British soil. He gave the public an instalment of twelve books of the Iliad, replete with proofs of care, study, and desire to win audience for the metre which he had chosen, unwisely indeed in our judgment, though it must be owned that he had many distinguished partners in his mistake. The hexameter in his hands proved too frequently intractable to allow of his gaining unmixed favour or praise; and our researches into publishers' circulars, and such like shadows cast before of coming events, have satisfied us that these oracles are dumb as yet as to the advent of Mr. Dart's second volume. Dean Alford, too, it will be remembered, brought out a first volume of an English Odyssey in hendecasyllabic verse; a work which, in spite of some good points (*e.g.*, equal distribution of English for Greek, line for line, and word for word), lacked earnests of vitality, and showed dangerous elements of failure in its lumbering movement, flat monotony, and striking inaptitude for sustained recitation. As yet he makes no signs of his second volume; and, without venturing to predicate his retreat, we may at any rate suspect that Homer in hendecasyllables has not met with enough encouragement to justify the completion of the work. It is otherwise with the Spenserian version of the Odyssey, with the first half of which Mr. Worsley entered the lists at the close of the year 1861. In that remarkable production of a very young man, there were so many signs of a poetic gift, cultivated, disciplined, and studiously subordinated to the prime duty of reproducing his original, that the majority of critics coincided in giving his labours a hearty welcome, and unusually flattering encouragement to persevere. The chief alloy of fault, hinted in these pages, and more fully touched upon in other reviews, to wit, an affectation of archaic words, and the adoption of Spenser's vocabulary at the same time with his stanza, was in itself a slight drawback. But, notwithstanding this, the remarkable success which followed the publication of Worsley's first volume must have satisfied all who calmly and without partisanship consider the vexed question of fitting metres for Homer in English, that a competitor who can so gracefully wield a native form of versification has great advantages over the champions of an unnaturalized muse, and is certain of an inspiriting "consensus" of national sympathy. And the result of our observation is, that Mr. Worsley's frank acceptance of the "vox populi" as his arbiter is not the least of the causes which have secured him a success denied to those who, holding Professor Arnold's views, appeal to the scholar's tribunal with

* *Worsley's Odyssey.* Books XIII.-XXIV. Blackwoods, 1862. *Norgate's Odyssey, in dramatic blank verse.* Williams & Norgate, 1863.

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unsaleable hexameters. Anyhow, he has completed and put forth a version as remarkable for its success among the general public, as for its freedom hitherto from assault by the lances of scholars. As an accomplished fact, and no longer an instalment, Worsley's Odyssey is entitled to rank higher than any poetical version of that poem since the days of Pope. Indeed, as we peruse his second volume, we are not sure that he has not, unconsciously perhaps, leaned to Pope's weakness, and erred (if error it be) in the similitude of Pope's transgression, lack of closeness in translation. He lets a hint of this escape him at the close of his preface to volume ii., where he says, "that it is always a nobler success to represent the manners and the idea than to copy the phrase, and that when the two forms of resemblance are at strife, the lower excellence must yield to the higher, the particular truth to the general, the sign to the thing signified." But even without this admission, the second volume furnishes patent evidences of Worsley's increasing adoption of the freedom of Pope. Not that he repeats unreservedly the dashing practice of that brilliant genius. He has much reverence for Homer's own words; and whereas, in Pope's Homer you cannot divest yourself of the notion that the translator holds the text cheaply, and values more highly than accuracy and faithfulness his own ease in numbers and sonorousness of couplets, with Mr. Worsley a deviation from the text, or an expansion of it, is never ventured, unless owing to exigency of metre, or needed for the reader's more immediate comprehension of the drift of the stanza. We cannot claim for Mr. Worsley the merit of literalness; nor would he, we suspect, look for it; he must be conscious of many more passages than the number to which we could point, where whole lines and couplets come in by way of expansion; but he may safely plead guilty to this charge of "*Pope*"-*ery*, and may safely meet the verdict of scholars with the formula, "Mallem cum Popio errare," etc. Luckily, we are enabled to contrast with Mr. Worsley's free and poetical version before us, a literal blank verse translation of the Odyssey very recently published. Mr. Norgate, in practice, represents exact literality; though he tells us in his preface that his aim has been "a desirable union of closeness and freedom." It seems to us that in a laudable desire to bring about this match, he has overlooked the latter of the contracting parties. Hence the issue may not improbably be, that though, as he presages in a curious concluding puff,—

> "His book may ease a schoolboy's pains,
> And prove to him a treasure,
> For ready change of Homer's coin,
> Valued at England's measure,"

yet the repute of his version with others may be small and short-lived. One point, however, connected with Mr. Norgate's version is deserving of notice. Dramatic blank verse, as our readers will bear in mind, signifies that the usual ten-syllable verse is relieved, as in Shakspere, continually by interspersed hendecasyllables. And, in adopting this form of verse, Mr. Norgate in some degree assimilates with Dean Alford, who, it was thought, would have done more wisely to use this

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very metrical arrangement instead of the one which he adopted. Had the version before us been equal in execution to its design, there might have been found in it a confirmation of this view; but it is impossible to illustrate what we deem a sound principle of metrical arrangement by a translation, where, for the sake of making English lines commensurate with the corresponding Greek, pronouns are ignored as follows:

> "Welcome shalt be with us! Partake our dinner;
> Whereof may'st ask the Lord Laertes,
> Whene'er shalt visit him!" (i. 188-9);
>
> "Else shalt be dragg'd, and quickly, by the foot" (xviii. 10);

where also personal pronouns are eternally repeated thus—

> "The son of him, him and Penelope;
> But I, I'll put him into thine hands now" (xvi. 66);
>
> "Here in the farmstead, I, I'll send him clothes" (xvi. 84);
>
> "Yea, stranger, I, I'll tell thee this right truly" (xvi. 112);

without any justification in the Greek; and where out of every page one may pick such renderings as ἄττα, "dad;" δειελιήσας, "take nuncheon" (which we presume means "luncheon"); τέρποντο, "were in merry pin;" ἐρέζετον—χερσὶ μαχήσασθαι, "are challenging to fisticuffs." In fact, though favourable to dramatic blank verse, in theory, for Homeric translation, we are bound to say that here a good cause is not made the most of. Pains and diligence must be imputed to any man who turns the whole Odyssey into his mother-tongue; and it is good taste to fix on the species of verse which has been immortalized by Shakspeare's use; but here we have said all that can be said; and, in truth, we would confidently take any given passage of Norgate's version, and place side by side with it the prose translation in Bohn's series, and let any jury of men with ears decide whether the latter is not more poetical. Nothing could be more fatal to elegance than the frequent elisions for which he takes credit to himself, "considering how freely Homer elides and clips his words;" and this is a fault enhanced and aggravated by the lack of dignity and sustainedness of language.

It were unfair, however, not to note that where Worsley is diffuse, Norgate is often commendably concise; and that in some cases where the former has not brought out Homer's sense, the latter will be found faithful and true. In Od. xvii. 376-9—

> ἦ οὐχ ἅλις ἦμιν ἀλήμονές εἰσι καὶ ἄλλοι
> πτωχοὶ ἀνιηροί, δαιτῶν ἀπολυμαντῆρες
> ἠ ὄνοσαι ὅτι τοι βίοτον κατέδουσιν ἄνακτος
> ἐνθάδ' ἀγειρόμενοι, σὺ δὲ καὶ ποθι τόνδ' ἐκάλεσσας,

Worsley takes the suitors as the subject to κατέδουσιν in v. 378, whereas, in fact, it is ἀλήμονές ἄλλοι; and, following Eustathius, he looks upon ὄνοσαι as *i.q.* μέμφῃ. But surely it is far better to consider it as *i.q.* "parvi pendis," and then καὶ τόνδε will mean "this beggar too." Worsley's version of 378-9 is as follows—

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"Hast thou the boldness to rebuke our sin,
While in these halls assembling day by day;
Thy Lord we spoil, and hast thyself call'd in
Even this gorger to devour the prey?"

Ogilvy, Chapman, and Pope translate the passage with a truer perception of the subject of *κατέδουσι*. The first of these is, as might be expected, most faithful, but Norgate's version is not less so, and withal, tolerably free from the blots of his style—

"Have we not already
A plenty of strolling vagrants, troublous beggars,
Sponging at feasts? Do'st think it not enough
How gathering here they waste thy master's living,
But thou must also invite this vagrant hither?"

Yet why, O why could he not have printed "plenty" instead of "a plenty!" and "bid" for "invite," in v. 4, if he had any regard for sensitive ears?

Mr. Worsley again is a little vague in his translation of vv. 407-8 of the same book:—

εἰ οἱ τόσσον ἅπαντες ὀρέξειαν μνηστῆρες
καὶ κέν μιν τρεῖς μῆνας ἀπόπροθεν οἴκοι ἐρύκοι.

"Should all these suitors yield him equal grace,
Soon were the house delivered for a three months' space."

Norgate renders more exactly, yet far less elegantly—

"Would all the suitors here
Hand him as much as I, his home should keep him
Sure all away from hence for three good months."

In this latter version *τόσσον* is most plainly referred to "the stool just flung," but Worsley could never have printed "*Sure all away.*"

But it is impossible to compare one version with the other for twenty lines together without closing the blank verse, and preferring the Spenserian translation. Mr. Worsley is wonderfully happy in single lines, such as in xvi. 227—

οἵ τε καὶ ἄλλους
ἀνθρώπους πεμπόυσιν ὅτις σφέας εἰσαφίκηται;

"Who convoy lend to all who convoy crave."

but still more so in general effect, stanza after stanza reproducing the original vividly before us. As a good specimen we will quote Od. xxii. 302-9, stanza 37—

"And as when eagles, curven-beaked and strong,
Fly from the hills and the fleet birds assail;
These in the low plain flit and cower along,
Pounced on with fury, nor can flight avail,
Nor courage, while good sport the fowlers hail—
So 'mid the suitors hovering evermore,
Turning about they smite them, and deal bale.
Direly the heads crashed, and a hideous roar
Sounded for ever, and still the bubbling earth ran gore."

We had marked also stanza 46 of the same book, and several others, equally good, but have not space for them.

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Enough has been advanced to indicate our preference of Worsley to any more recent Homeric translator. Nor do we care to go again into the hexameter question, though Mr. Worsley, having finished his own version, seems half inclined, if we may judge from his preface, to lend hand and counsel to the feeble upholders of a feeble cause. We bide the issue; though, if we were of a sporting turn, we should stake all on the high-mettled Spenserian as against hexameter. There is yet another scarce-tried Pegasus, which, if well-mounted, might run a race with any competitor; we mean the ballad metre. It has no antecedent ill auguries against it; for what Maginn did, he did so well that it is matter of regret he did no more; and the same may be said in some measure of Mr. Gladstone's one or two specimens. Besides, what can better serve for the reproduction in English of lays that charmed the ear of youthful Hellas, than the form of verse most familiar to the infancy of every nation, the ballad? Let some young bard awake from his day-dreams, bathe his very spirit in the depths of Homeric minstrelsy, and carefully, yet boldly, reproduce in ballad fashion the treasures he can recover from those scarce-fathomed caverns. He will have some at least to wish him good speed. He can scarcely fail of wider welcome. And while lack of complete success will be only a fate common to a goodly company, it will be no slight enhancement of victory, if achieved, to have matched, or, it may be, outdone Mr. Worsley.

VIII.—ACADEMICAL EXAMINATIONS AND DEGREES IN THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION.*

My object in bringing this subject before the Association being rather to state briefly its leading points, as matters for discussion, than to give a complete exposition of my own views respecting them, I shall not attempt to do more in this paper than to express in the fewest possible words what appear to me to be the chief propositions to be established.

1*st*, As the educator operates upon the *mind* of his pupils, it is indispensable to his success that he should have an accurate knowledge of the constitution and laws of the human mind.

2*d*, He should also be familiar with the various modes, which have been practically tried, of accomplishing the recognised objects of education, and with the scientific principles on which they are based.

3*d*, One means of inducing those who choose the vocation of the teacher, to prepare themselves by such studies for the due discharge of their duties, would be for our Universities to institute examinations in the science of Education, and to distinguish those who dis-

* Read at Guildhall, on the 10th of June 1862, before the Educational Section of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science.

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play the due degree of proficiency in it, by appropriate academical degrees.

The first proposition may be regarded as a truism, and as hardly needing even to be stated; unfortunately, however, this, like many other equally indisputable propositions, has hitherto, in this country at least, received scarcely any practical application. Even the highest positions in the educational profession—the professorships in our universities and colleges, the head-masterships of our richly-endowed and socially influential grammar-schools—are too frequently the rewards of mere eminence in learning or in scientific attainments, altogether irrespective of ability even to communicate knowledge to others, to say nothing of the moral and other qualities, which are essential to enable any one to exercise beneficially the functions of a teacher. It would *à priori* seem to be incredible that no provision whatever should have been made for ascertaining whether those to whom is intrusted the momentous duty of instructing the young, have any sound knowledge of the human mind, the entity upon which they are to operate, and ignorance of which must render their labours either ineffectual or mischievous. Yet such is undoubtedly the case; and to this fact chiefly must be attributed the low condition of educational science.

Many illustrations in confirmation of this statement might be given, derived from the acknowledged and ordinary usages of teachers. I will mention two or three of these as indicative of what I mean. The "fagging system," though happily modified of late years, and purged from its grosser evils, so that probably no boy now runs a risk of being crippled in his hands by being compelled to use them instead of a toasting-fork, to which barbarous treatment, as Sydney Smith records, Lord Holland was subjected, is still in its essential features maintained in some of our public schools, and is defended as being a useful and moral institution! Another illustration is the employment of "corporal punishment" as a means of moral correction and of intellectual stimulus. This, too, I am glad to admit, is declining before the diffusion of sounder views; but its mere existence is sufficient for my purpose. A third illustration is the use of what are called "impositions" as punishments in schools—a system which degrades the acquisition of knowledge into a penal infliction, and thereby inseparably associates it, in the mind of the young, with ideas of repulsion and dislike; thus defeating what ought to be one of the main objects of every teacher, namely, to inspire his pupils with an earnest and abiding love of knowledge. Lastly, we see the pernicious consequences of a disregard of mental philosophy in the methods of instruction still pursued in probably the majority of our schools, especially in those where classical learning is regarded as the most important branch of instruction, but which is unfortunately too often taught in so irrational a manner as to make classical studies not only all but futile as respects their direct object, but a positive source of injury to the mind of the student.

It does not come within the scope of this paper to inquire into the *causes* of this state of things; but I may say that it is perhaps in great

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part attributable to the fact, that until comparatively recent times, the business of the professional teacher has been regarded as consisting mainly in the mere imparting of knowledge, the cultivation of the mental faculties being either wholly left out of consideration, or treated as a subordinate and incidental portion of his duties. Further, it has been generally, but most incorrectly assumed, that the possession of knowledge is identical with competency to communicate it.

It would be a waste of time to expose, before such an audience, errors now universally condemned by all who have devoted much thought to the subject of education. But it is more difficult to extirpate bad habits, either of conduct or of thought, than to demonstrate their badness; and hence it is still necessary for the educational reformer to insist upon the vital importance of a careful and systematic study of mental phenomena by every teacher who has a due sense of the responsible character of his office.

Theory, however, without practice, without application, is barren of results; nor does accurate knowledge necessarily and at once insure sound and beneficial action. Especially is this true when the sphere of action is the human mind, so infinitely diversified in its characteristics, so complex in its constitution, so susceptible of modification by its varying relations to other existences. Hence the educator stands in need of all the help derivable from the recorded experience and reflection of those who have gone before him. This necessity is stated in my second proposition, which does not require elucidation or defence any more than that which precedes it.

I may, however, briefly allude to the extent of the field of knowledge which this proposition embraces. Among the classical authors, much may be learnt on education from Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon: Quintilian's work contains many truths on which teachers may still profitably ponder. But it is not until we reach modern times that educational literature becomes extensive or of much practical value. There are numerous works by English, German, and French authors, of great merit in this department of literature: since the time of Rousseau, who, with all his faults, was one of the first to consider education philosophically, there has been a constant succession of thoughtful writers upon this theme, each of whom has assisted to remove some difficulty out of our way, to explain some valuable method, or, at least, to warn us of some error or danger to be avoided. The history of education is still unwritten; and few things would be more extensively useful than such a work skilfully and accurately compiled: the want of it is one of the greatest hindrances to educational improvement. We need a comprehensive and generalizing mind to collect the truths that are now scattered and lost in hundreds of volumes; to arrange them lucidly and systematically; and to show the relation of each practical method to the laws of the human mind. Much would thus be done to dispel the apparent confusion and inconsistency which at present impedes our progress towards a sound system of education.

I come now to the main object of this paper, as stated in its title, and in the third proposition. Assuming that the first and second

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propositions which I have laid down are admitted, it remains to examine whether the institution of examinations and academical degrees in the science of Education would be likely to promote the object thus acknowledged to be desirable.

And here I should be doing great injustice to the College of Preceptors, were I not to call attention to the fact that that body has, from its origin, insisted upon the necessity for special attention on the part of teachers to the theory of their profession: in its examinations for the diplomas which its charter authorizes it to confer, special attention has always been paid to what is designated "the theory and practice of education;" a subject with which every candidate must show a reasonable degree of acquaintance, or incur rejection. It cannot be doubted that the College of Preceptors has thus effected a considerable amount of good directly, and still more indirectly, by holding up to public attention a subject which might otherwise have been in danger of total neglect. It may perhaps be objected that such being the case, there is no necessity for the Universities to interfere in a matter which has already been taken up by the corporation more immediately interested in it. But it must be recollected that the College of Preceptors, although it willingly admits among its members persons belonging to all the various grades and classes of educators, is yet principally composed of those engaged in private schools; and that its examinations and diplomas were specially designed for, and have influenced the teachers in, such schools. Besides, the College of Preceptors has never claimed any *exclusive* right of examination in the science of education; nor would such a monopoly, if possible, be advantageous either to it or to the public. There are various corporations in the United Kingdom, each of which has the power of examining in the principles and practice of the healing art, and of conferring diplomas which convey the legal right to practise medicine; and their rivalry is equally beneficial to themselves and to the community at large. Exactly similar would be the results were the Universities to do what I have ventured to suggest; and the College of Preceptors would not be the last to derive advantage from the stimulus which such action on their part could not fail to give to the study of the science of education.

As I have already stated, I do not propose to enter into all the details of the subject: these I gladly leave to be discussed by those before whom this paper is read. But I may briefly refer to a few objections which have been brought against my proposal.

One of them is that the science of Education is too restricted in its extent and too special in its character to afford a sufficient basis for academical degrees.

I must say that this objection seems to me rather to arise from the limited views of those who make it, than to rest upon any foundation of fact. My own apprehension would, I confess, be of a precisely opposite kind: I believe that the range of knowledge and of independent reflection that might fairly be included in an examination for an educational degree, would be so extensive that there might at first and

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until experience had furnished its lessons, be a danger of candidates being deterred by the difficulty of the subject from presenting themselves for examination. I think that the subjects to which I have referred in explanation of the first and second propositions are, in mere extent, at least equal to those for a knowledge of which degrees in medicine and in law are now conferred; and in the amount of intellectual effort required for their mastery they are certainly not inferior. Besides, I do not contemplate the institution of degrees entirely new and independent of those already established. My view is, that the educational degrees should be special degrees in the existing faculties. For instance, in my own University—that of London—they might be made to follow the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and of Bachelor of Science. I mention the latter because it would be absurd in these days to require of every aspirant for an educational degree that he should have an extensive knowledge of the classics; there is a great and increasing demand for competent instructors in the various branches of natural science, such as are included in the curricula for the scientific degrees, by the institution of which the University of London has taken a step which cannot but conduce greatly to the public advantage, and to its own usefulness and prosperity. It would be easy enough, if it were considered necessary, to devise distinctions for the purpose of indicating in which branch of education the degree was taken; and I may mention, as bearing upon this point, the fact that the degree of Master is conferred by the University of London in three distinct sub-divisions of the Faculty of Arts, classics and history, mathematics, and mental and moral philosophy.

Another objection is, that as no generally received psychological theory has yet been promulgated, there would be endless diversities in the views of the examiners, so that educational degrees would not represent anything definite and recognised, and hence would have little value. I might in answer to this truly affirm that there are few branches of science in which academical degrees are actually granted, against which similar objections might not be brought. But it is more to my purpose to observe that the objection is founded on a misapprehension of what is intended. I have no wish that candidates should be required to give their adhesion to any psychological theory, or that the examinations should be mere tests of their knowledge of the numerous metaphysical speculations which have seen the light, and of which Germany alone has produced so many during the past century. I do not undervalue the importance of such speculations; but I hold that they are as yet quite out of the domain of practical application, and therefore have little, if any, relation to the subject under consideration. Unquestionably, however, there is a large body of well-ascertained and universally admitted facts relating to mental phenomena, which might with advantage be systematically studied by educators; and to these the proposed examinations should be confined.

Lastly, I may notice the objection that no examination can test the fitness of candidates for the vocation of a teacher, since this depends quite as much on moral, and even on merely personal qualities, as on

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the possession of any kind or amount of knowledge. I willingly grant all this; but deny the implied inference. Is it not equally true that the successful physician must have numerous mental and moral endowments which cannot be made manifest through the medium of examinations in anatomy, physiology, and therapeutics? But what sane man would thence conclude that medical examinations and degrees should be abolished, and that all restrictions on the exercise of the healing art should be removed? The argument, in short, merely amounts to this: examinations cannot accomplish everything, therefore they are useless. We have heard during the last few years similar arguments against the examinations which have been instituted in various departments of the public service; but the good sense of our countrymen has long since estimated the real force of the objections that have been brought against one of the most useful innovations of modern times. In fact, we have only to consider that the effect of these civil service examinations is simply to *add* something to what had previously been required of candidates for public employment, not to take anything whatever *away*, to see at once that they are a valuable institution, and cannot fail to increase efficiency in the transaction of public business. I need not occupy your time by showing that this argument is strictly applicable to the examinations which it is the object of this paper to advocate.

I may perhaps be asked what reason I have for supposing that these educational degrees would be sought for by a sufficient number of teachers, to render them of any appreciable effect in promoting educational progress and reform. I reply that nothing indicates any diminution of the esteem in which academical degrees are held, or of the influence which they exert upon professional as well as upon general education. The history of the University of London, in fact, proves the direct contrary. The number of its candidates has steadily increased from year to year; it has greatly enlarged the boundaries of university influence by establishing the science degrees, which bring within its examination system all the principal branches of modern inductive science; and it has thus secured the support of classes of men of large and constantly extending influence. There can, I think, be no doubt that one of the recognised wants of the present day, is some means of distinguishing between the qualified and the unqualified educator, especially among the middle classes. Various efforts have been made, with more or less success, to supply this want; and the measure which I have thus briefly explained would have the same important object. Educational degrees would be prized by really efficient teachers, inasmuch as they would mark out their possessors as men who had thoroughly studied their profession, and had thus given the best guarantees of their fitness to be intrusted with the honourable and most important task of training the rising generation.

In conclusion, I must apologize for the cursory nature of this paper; it has been written under the pressure of urgent occupations, which have left me no leisure to make it more worthy of consideration. I trust, however, that my remarks may afford occasion for the expression

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of the views of those who have great and well-earned influence on public opinion, and that thus they may have been written not altogether in vain.

JOHN ROBSON.

IX.—GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTION.*

I. *The threefold aim of Teaching.*—Education, as Montaigne says, forges the mind—tempers and fashions it; the design of instruction is to store it.

To instruct or teach is to convey knowledge into the pupil's mind; and certainly instruction forms a large portion of the task which the master actually performs; it is the most conspicuous part of his work; most readily appreciable; most easily measured by results. On this account, however, the notion has been long prevalent, that instruction comprehends the whole of education; the whole duty of the teacher: a notion which is lamentably wrong, and which can produce only mischievous effects.

What, in reality, is instruction of itself? What is all the information that we can impart to the mind, if we do not endeavour to form the mind, and to improve its quality? It is an instrument, indeed, but the hand which ought to use that instrument has not the right power, or is not properly formed; it remains an instrument, even though it effected nothing, which, however, can never be the case. Instruction, like every other inert instrument, is in itself neither good nor evil, but may become one or the other according to the use made of it; and it is a sad truth that the mind possessing it, if not prepared and disposed to use it for good, will most certainly use it for evil. Infinitely better, in that case, would it have been if the instrument had been immediately broken in pieces by the hands that received it.

Let not instruction be withheld; but give it in such a way as will promote the mind's growth, and cultivate goodness of disposition. And, in order that it may have this double tendency, let us ever bear in mind that teaching, in reference to every branch of instruction, ought to have a threefold aim:—1*st*, The communication of knowledge; 2*d*, The development of the intellectual powers; 3*d*, The development of the moral powers. Let us examine these points in succession.

1*st*, *The Communication of Knowledge.*—This requires not to be dwelt on; it is the direct and immediate purpose of teaching; but not the final purpose, not that which is most important to attain. Instruction is, as it were, but an outer covering; the mind, the intelligent principle, is the main thing.

2*d*, *The Development of the Intellectual Powers.*—It is the entire

* Adapted from *Cours Théorique et Pratique de Pédagogie*, by M. Charbonneau. Paris, 1862. Pp. 238-259.

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mind which we should endeavour to cultivate when we impart knowledge to it; we should take advantage of all the opportunities that so readily occur in teaching, for developing and strengthening the intelligence of children. It will perhaps be said that, as instruction addresses itself to the understanding, it must necessarily, in doing so, develop the mental faculties, and that there can be no need for a teacher to pre-occupy his mind with any design of producing that result, or to bend his efforts in any special way towards it. But be it observed, that instinctive development, if we may so call it, is a very slight thing compared with what the master can produce in whose efforts there is a constant and express aim at intellectual development. He will accordingly avail himself of all opportunities and means which such instruction as he ought to give to his pupils will naturally supply, for the work of diligently educating all the powers of their minds. He will strive rather to form men of intellectual ability than to produce men of learning.

And here let us notice a special aspect of this part of our subject. In order that instruction may be fruitful in the mind, it is not sufficient that the pupil remember well its principles, and that his understanding should be enlarged and strengthened by them; it is further requisite that that faculty of his mind which I will call the practical sense, shall have sufficiently profited by them, and shall have been made more powerful and skilful. Where would be the benefit to a man to have learned in his childhood barren theories, or any kind of knowledge of which he has not been taught to make some application to the uses of life and to his daily wants? Where would be his advantage in being able to give strict demonstrations of general theorems in arithmetic, or in having been trained to perform difficult operations with abstract numbers, if he knows not how to state and resolve a practical problem? Where his advantage in a general acquaintance with geography and history, if he knows not what has passed in his native land around him; is ignorant of the productions, the resources, the peculiarities of the soil which gave him birth? I am aware that all parts of a branch of instruction do not equally admit of practical application; nay, it is well their chief utility and interest are not in every particular merely material. But still, while we seek to promote as much as possible interests of the nobler kind, we should not disregard the tendency to material profit, for that feature is of special importance for the class of children attending our elementary schools, and is often a source of valuable benefit to them.

3*d*, *The Development of the Moral Powers.*—This is, as it were, an indirect and latent aim that should pervade all teaching; but it is, moreover, the special aim, the most important, the most exalted. And, indeed, what is the worth of possessing knowledge used as a means of supplying daily necessities, even though it may have augmented the powers of intellect, if the possessor has not thereby been made a better man, if he does not use the acquirement, the skill, the power, with an affectionate desire of realizing the good, of attaining the end, which the Deity prescribes to his exertion? Everything in this life, and

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therefore everything in education, ought to be subservient to that end. It is with knowledge and intellectual faculties as it is with physical forces, their excellence consists in the assistance they contribute to the accomplishment of the final end. This is the ordained object of their existence; this is the measure of their needfulness; this harmonizes them in admirable unity. We should eagerly seize the many opportunities which present themselves in teaching, and avail ourselves of all the means which the communication of knowledge may supply, to dispose to the love and practice of good, to make the intellectual faculties serve for developing and strengthening the moral powers.

And not only may instruction as a whole be made conducive to the general development of the faculties, but every species of study may and ought to be applied specially to the particular development of one or more intellectual or moral faculties. Thus, arithmetic, while it affords scope for the exercise and development of the various intellectual faculties, and of the moral powers generally, addresses itself more especially, among the former, to the reason, and, among the latter, by means of judiciously-chosen problems, to the spirit of order and of an unselfish economy, which is a basis of regular and wise conduct, and an efficacious though subordinate auxiliary in the fulfilment of the law of social duty. In like manner, history can do much in the culture of imagination, and for the development of memory and moral judgment; geography addresses itself chiefly to the memory, and encourages the spirit of observation; and that spirit is still more powerfully called into exercise in the natural sciences, which, on the other hand, are admirably adapted to promote the culture of the religious sentiment. But, above all, the study of language is of greatest service towards a general and complete mental development. Language is the expression of thought; now, thought has relation to all things,—to the past, the present, the future,—to the objects of moral economy, as well as to those of the world of sense,—to memory and judgment, to reason and imagination, to the sentiments and the will; thus language is everywhere an essential medium, everything comes through it and returns into it. Hence, when we are engaged in teaching language, we are always enabled to touch upon every point in man's mental nature, and to develop and improve the whole.

Recognising, then, the spirit which ought to actuate our instruction, let us pass on to consider the means to be employed for imparting it in our schools.

II. *Definitions.*—When we take in hand the management of a school, the task is more difficult than if we had to instruct a small group of children, to give lessons to a single class. It is necessary to have several exercises going on together, to distribute the time of the pupils, and especially the valuable time of the master; in short, to organize the whole, to lay down a *mode* (system) of teaching.

The *mode*, then, is the manner of organizing and directing the general procedure of a school, as, for example, what is called the mutual system, the simultaneous system, etc. The choice and employment of a mode, or the general organization of a school, is the most frequent

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stumbling-block to teachers; for, while this point is the most important it is the most difficult to succeed in; it demands the employment of qualities of the rarest occurrence, peculiar and often opposite in their nature,—a combining power, attention and promptitude, zeal and judgment, comprehension of the whole, and observation of the details. Hence the great importance of young instructors becoming early accustomed to conjoin these different qualities.

To give a lesson is comparatively an easy thing. Here other qualities are requisite, which, though not less valuable than the preceding, have less dissimilarity among themselves, and are so much the more easy to bring into co-operation, at least to a sufficient degree. To give a lesson, to impart knowledge, to teach some truth, is the object of what we call *methods*.

A *method*, then, as regards pedagogy, comprises the whole of the means to be employed and order to be followed, for the purpose of imparting to pupils some truth in general; such are the expository method, the inductive method, the Socratic or interrogative method, etc. This word *method* is further to be understood as denominating the whole of the means to be employed and order to be followed, for the purpose of imparting to pupils a connected series of truths, that is, a science, a branch of instruction. It is in this latter sense that we use the word in speaking of a method of teaching writing, reading, geography, singing, arithmetic, etc.

Lastly, what are called *processes* are merely accessory expedients, often mechanical, which a method may have at its service; they may, in most instances, be unemployed or replaced by others, without involving any change of the method itself. Such is, for example, in a certain method of teaching penmanship, the greater or less employment of faint outline in the various styles, or of black directing lines more or less complicated; such too, in teaching reading, is the use of accompanying pictures, boxes of alphabetic characters, etc., and in arithmetic, the ball-frame, little blocks of wood, the fingers, or simple lines drawn on the black-board, etc., and in geography, the use of blank maps, or the Abbé Gaultier's game of Loto. W. Macleod.

X.—CURRENT LITERATURE.

Books, partaking more or less of the nature of travels, figure prominently in the literature of last, as in that of the preceding quarter. Turning first to Australia, Dr. Wills presents us with an account of his son, William John Wills,* who accompanied and shared the fate of Burke, in his disastrous expedition to the Gulf of Carpentaria. Mr. Wills was second in command on that occasion, besides holding the special appointment of astronomical observer and surveyor. The present

* *A Successful Exploration through the Interior of Australia.* From the Journals and Letters of William John Wills. Edited by his Father. Bentley, 1863.

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volume is, in great part, made up of his journals and reports, where the scientific results of the expedition are recorded, and its fortunes briefly chronicled, down to the last day of the writer's life. The tragic conclusion of this egregiously ill-managed enterprise must always make it one of the most painfully interesting chapters in the annals of discovery. For that mismanagement, Mr. Wills appears to have been in no way responsible. His sense of the obligations of discipline was indeed strong, and he perhaps assented too readily to the fatal caprices of his leader. But his conduct otherwise was beyond exception; and his name has been fitly coupled with that of Burke, in designating the expedition, which owed its partial and dear-bought success, in no small measure, to his energy and intelligence. The dangers which Mr. Wills encountered, and to which he at last succumbed, were those proper to the desert. But dangers not less deadly are to be met with in the heart of a thickly-peopled and semi-civilized country, and by a person of no less consequence than Her Britannic Majesty's representative. Sir Rutherford Alcock, in his *Capital of the Tycoon*,* supplies us with a very striking illustration of this proposition. His life is spent in daily fear of assassination, which, from the sentiments and practices of the Japanese, as described in this work, appears an extremely well-founded apprehension. Sir Rutherford, after three years' residence in Japan, is still by no means hopeful that we shall ever succeed in establishing close or friendly intercourse with the natives. Meanwhile we are indebted to him for a very interesting account of the curious and complex framework of the Japanese Government, and of the condition and mutual relations of the various orders of society. His description of the class of nobles or Daimios merits particular attention, as it is from their inveterate hostility to the foreigner that our chief difficulties, diplomatic and commercial, have arisen. Our author has not, however, confined his observations to the neighbourhood of his official residence, nor is his work merely of diplomatic interest. We have here descriptions of one or two lengthened excursions into the interior,—particularly one from Nagasaki to Yedo,—which add much to our knowledge of the country, and of the state and habits of the people. Upon the whole, Sir Rutherford has seen more of Japan than any other European, and his work throws the fullest light upon the subject which is at present within our reach. Great revolutions seem to be now in progress in that singular country. We trust the result of them will be to render our author's position more pleasant and secure, and to facilitate beyond his hopes our intercourse with the Japanese. From Sir Rutherford Alcock our attention is called to an ambassador of a different stamp. Mr. Russell, in his *Diary North and South*,† tells us that, when he was presented to Mr. Lincoln, the President said, "Mr. Russell, I am very glad to make your acquaintance, and to see you in this country. The

* *The Capital of the Tycoon.* By Sir Rutherford Alcock, K.C.B. 2 vols. Longman, 1863.

† *My Diary North and South.* By William Howard Russell. Bradbury & Evans, 1863.

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London *Times* is one of the greatest powers in the world; in fact, I don't know anything which has much more power—except perhaps the Mississippi. I am glad to know you as its minister." The ambassadorial character, thus promptly recognised by Mr. Lincoln, was perhaps equally present to the minds of all the public men with whom Mr. Russell came in contact. But it is hard to believe that private gentlemen were fully aware of the terms on which they conversed with the newspaper envoy; and some of them may have awaked to find themselves famous, through the medium of this book, without precisely relishing the situation. All the distinctive and familiar merits of Mr. Russell's writings meet us again in these volumes. They are full of lively anecdotes, shrewd observations, and word-portraits or rather photographs, which are always pleasant to read, if not always easy to realize. They have, in addition to this, the rare virtue of being strictly impartial. It would be difficult to say, from the evidence they afford us, that Mr. Russell has any preference for either Confederates or Federals. But it is perfectly manifest that he regards both alike with some degree of disfavour. Of the rowdyism, which is a disgrace to American society, both North and South, he gives us some striking illustrations. Here is a scene in a railway sleeping-car between New York and Washington:—

"Unfortunately, a party of prize-fighters had a mind to make themselves comfortable, and the result was anything but conducive to sleep. They had plenty of whisky, and were full of song and fight; nor was it possible to escape their urgent solicitations to 'take a drink' by feigning the soundest sleep. One of these, a big man with a broken nose, a mellow eye, and a very large display of rings, jewels, chains, and pins, was in very high spirits, and informed us he was 'going to Washington, to get a foreign mission from Bill Seward. He wouldn't take Paris, as he didn't care much about French or Frenchmen, but he'd just like to show John Bull how to do it; or he'd take Japan if they were very pressing.' Another told us he was 'going to the bosom of Uncle Abe (meaning the President)—that he knew him well in Kentucky years ago, and a high-toned gentleman he was.' Any attempts to persuade them to retire to rest made by the conductors were treated with sovereign contempt; but at last whisky asserted its supremacy; and having established the point that 'they would not sleep unless they d— pleased,' they slept and snored."

The political interest which still attaches to America, has, in the case of Italy, lost somewhat of its force. But Italy, as treated by Mr. Story in his *Roba di Roma*,* must be a subject ever welcome to the judicious reader. The word *Roba* we learn from Mr. Story's preface, includes everything from rubbish up to the most exquisite product of art and nature. The contents of his work are correspondingly various, though certainly never descending to the lower of these extremes. Much as has been written about Rome, he has something new to tell us; and scenes often described before acquire new vividness and freshness from his pen. He has evidently a thorough enjoyment of Italian life; and has made a careful and comprehensive study of the national character, his general estimate of which, as it appears in the mass of the population, is set forth in the following extract:—

"I feel sure that these people are more easily pleased, contented with less, less

* *Roba di Roma.* By William W. Story. 2 vols. Chapman & Hall, 1863.

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morose and less envious of the ranks above them, than we are. They give little thought to the differences of caste, have little ambition to make fortunes or rise out of their condition, and are satisfied with the commonest fare, if they can get enough of it. The demon of dissatisfaction never harries them. When you speak to them they answer with a smile that is nowhere else to be found. The nation is old, the people are children in disposition. Their character is like their climate, generally sunny—subject to violent occasional storms, but never growling life away in an uncomfortable drizzle of discontent. They live upon nature, sympathize with it, and love it—are susceptible to the least touch of beauty—are ardent, if not enduring, in their affections—and, unless provoked and irritated, are very peaceful and amiable. The flaw in their nature is jealousy, and it is a great flaw. Their want of truth is the result of their education. We, who are of the more active and busy natures, despise them for not having that irritated discontent which urges us forward to change our condition, and we think our ambition better than their supineness. But there is good in both. We do more—they enjoy more; we make violent efforts to be happy—invent, create, labour, to arrive at that quiet enjoyment which they own without struggle, and which our anxious strife unfits us to enjoy when the means for it are obtained. The general, popular idea that an Italian is quarrelsome and ill-tempered, and that the best are only bandits in disguise, is quite a mistake: and when studied as they exist, out of the track of travel, where they are often debased and denaturalized, they will be found to be simple, kind-hearted and generous."

The older classic land of Greece has lately been visited by Miss Frederika Bremer, and two interesting volumes on *Greece and the Greeks** are the result. Miss Bremer, notwithstanding her strong-mindedness, which even goes the length of habitual smoking,—of cigarettes, is a true woman. Her philhellenism is sentimental and gushing; neither very rational in its origin, nor very practical, or even definite, in its aims. When she visited the Senate at Athens, the Speaker, she tells us, "an old gentleman, with the exterior of a polished courtier, bowed to me, and said, 'I hope you are going to say something good of Greece.' To which I replied, 'I hope so too.'" The old gentleman, if alive, must, we should think, be perfectly satisfied with Miss Bremer's performance. She is candid enough to own, however, that the Greeks are too much bent upon the extension of their borders, and too little attentive to the development of their present limited territory. She also admits the superior social and physical condition of the Ionian Islands, and somewhat reluctantly confesses, "It is the result of England's sway, of England's orderly rule; England, that good, wise, if sometimes too severe, guardian." Miss Bremer, in the course of her two years' residence and rambling in Greece and the islands, saw some of the finest scenery in the world, and has described it vividly and well. The exterior of the national life is also brought before us in a number of interesting sketches of the games, dances, and superstitions of the people. It is unfortunate that Miss Bremer's ignorance of the language prevented her from getting to know them more thoroughly. With the half-Germanized court of Otho she had better means of becoming acquainted. Of these she has amply availed herself, and the royal circle still lives in her pages, when, at Athens, it is already almost forgotten. The fair author of *Through Algeria*† is

* *Greece and the Greeks.* By Frederika Bremer. Translated by Mary Howitt. 2 vols. Hurst & Blackett, 1863.

† *Through Algeria.* By the Author of *Life in Tuscany.* Bentley, 1833.

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less confident of woman's rights than Miss Bremer, and introduces her book with a "Plea for Lady Tourists." Waiving this difficult question of social ethics, it appears that her sex was of advantage in enabling her to gain admission into the domestic circles of the Algerians, of the internal economy of which she communicates some pleasant details. On the other hand, she did not allow it to prevent her from extending her tour beyond the beaten track, as far as some of the French military stations within the desert. Her achievements as a traveller were, however, far outstripped by Mrs. Atkinson, from whose *Recollections of the Tartar Steppes and their Inhabitants** we learn that she accompanied her husband's wanderings in these wild regions for nearly six years—from February 1848 to December 1853. Mr. Atkinson appears to have not been over considerate; but our author's pluck and wifely devotion carried her triumphantly through every trial. Such qualities deserved commemoration, and render this book a pleasant supplement to Mr. Atkinson's own account of their joint travels, though, compared with the latter, the lady's narrative is indeed

"As moonlight unto sunlight, or as water unto wine."

Life in Normandy† was written for pastime, but also with some idea of describing "ingenious foreign devices for catching and gathering food, and making it eatable, so as to benefit our poor at home, whose single dish of potatoes might be varied at small cost." This object is never lost sight of by the writer, but the reader may well be pardoned for dropping it out of view. It bears, indeed, the same relation to the work as tar-water to Bishop Berkeley's famous treatise on that subject. What we really have is a charmingly bright and genial picture of the fishing villages of Normandy and their inhabitants, as the author knew them in 1848. He has connected his observations very happily with the history of a short excursion made by the two friends, Cross and Hope, from Avranches, where the former resided, to Carolles and Granville. They pass through some notable adventures, and meet with a great variety of odd and interesting characters, who are lightly but gracefully delineated, with considerable dramatic power, and no small share of quiet humour. There is above all a group of Granville fisherwomen, one of whom saves the lives of the two Englishmen, and with whom, in consequence, they establish peculiarly friendly relations. This thread of narrative and adventure relieves the drier portions of the book,—if indeed any part of it can be called dry,—and gives to the whole something of the unity of a novel. Like a novel, too, it concludes with a marriage, following upon an "Insurrection of Women" in Granville, the description of which will richly repay perusal.

Mr. Hamerton's *Painter's Camp in the Highlands*,‡ may be so far

* *Recollections of the Tartar Steppes and their Inhabitants.* By Mrs. Atkinson. Murray, 1863.

† *Life in Normandy, Sketches of French Fishing, etc., Drawn from Nature.* 2 vols. Edmonston & Douglas, 1863.

‡ *A Painter's Camp in the Highlands, and Thoughts about Art.* By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. 2 vols. Macmillan, 1863.

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included among books of travel, as it describes a sort of nomadic existence generally, besides giving details of particular excursions. But the chief value of the work undoubtedly consists in the "Thoughts upon Art," which form the subject of the second volume. Mr. Hamerton, who takes nothing for granted, devotes a chapter to prove that certain artists should write upon art. Without committing ourselves on the general question, we are sincerely glad that he himself has seen proper to do so, especially now that Mr. Ruskin has retired from the field. Our author is an ardent admirer (as what true artist is not?) of the geat writer we have just named. He does not, however, follow him slavishly, and though, as we are sorry to observe, he has caught not a few of Mr. Ruskin's tricks of manner, there is little of the matter of this book which is not derived from independent study and reflection. In the following passage we find a new instance of the truth of Bacon's maxim, that "a mixture of a lie doth ever add pleasure:"—

"Photography affords a very interesting proof of a fact well known to artists, that a certain degree of exaggeration is quite indispensable to veracity. . . . . Photographs of mountains are hardly recognisable. The most careful topographic drawing, if it looks like nature, is sure to be full of exaggerations. People who are not aware of this never can recognise photographs of distant scenery, however familiar the scene may be to them; but they will recognise an exaggerated sketch without difficulty. I have found this continually here. I do my best not to exaggerate in working from nature; but as soon as ever I get interested in my subject, I cannot help exaggerating; whereas the photographic machine, being absolutely indifferent, will not give the least additional emphasis to the most interesting feature in its subject. The grandeur of noble scenery excites the imagination. It is really quite incredible how small a space is really occupied in the picture on the retina of the eye by that far gorge between the hills, that we know to be a thousand feet deep and five miles through. The photograph gives the fact in its stern truth. . . . . But the painter always sympathizes more or less with the excitement of the beholder, for he is himself a beholder. And therefore the photographic truth about mountains will always in its lifelessness strongly offend the artistic sense, and seem false and inadequate, as indeed it is, in relation to the spectator's imagination."

We have once or twice in the above passage omitted words which added nothing to the sense. Even so, however, it illustrates that tendency to verbiage which is the chief blemish of Mr. Hamerton's style. But there are also grave faults of taste in his production, and a persistent and wearisome obtrusion of certain foibles and hobbies, which are not unlikely to repel the fastidious reader, notwithstanding the solid value of much that he has said.

XI.—REVIEWS AND NOTICES OF BOOKS.

1. *Latin Prose Exercises for the Use of Schools.* By Rev. H. M. Wilkins, Fellow of Merton, Oxford. Longmans, 1863.
2. *An Elementary Latin Grammar.* By H. J. Roby, M.A., Under-Master of Dulwich College Upper School. Macmillan, 1862.

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3. *Second Latin Reader, being Extracts from Nepos, Cæsar, etc., with Notes, Vocabulary, and Syntax.* By A. H. Bryce, B.A., Classical Master in the High School, Edinburgh. T. Nelson and Sons, 1863.

In this group of school-books we recognise with pleasure a great advance in the philosophic and systematic treatment of Latin Grammar among those of our countrymen who are directly or indirectly engaged in elementary tuition. Any one who reflects what scanty food of this kind was presented to the school-boy of thirty years ago, and how that hapless wight was under the necessity of "bolting whole" crude helpings of the Eton Latin Grammar, through lack of the slightest previous directions as to the process of mastication, cannot fail to be led to wonder both how he and his compeers picked up the learning they did, and how far superior to that day's somewhat barbarous provision is the supply furnished for the intellectual palate of the modern schoolboy. Before us lie a volume of Latin Exercises by Mr. Wilkins, unconnected with any special grammar, and untrammelled by needless technicalities, but containing a systematic exposition of syntax, the rules of which are based on Madvig, Key, and Donaldson, with recourse in some respects to Kennedy's Elementary Grammar as a frame-work; a very compact and succinct Elementary Latin Grammar by Mr. Roby; and a volume of the "Reader" class, so much in vogue at present, which is at once a construing-book, a syntax, and a vocabulary or dictionary. When it is added that the syntax of the last-named volume is based on Madvig, although the exercise of independent judgment is frequently exerted in altering his arrangement to the advantage of method and perspicuity; that Roby's grammar is in leading features his own, though in details greatly indebted to Madvig, to Key, and to Donaldson's larger grammar; and that all three more or less aim at doing for Latin grammar what Morell has done for English: it will be imagined that their appearance is matter of congratulation to the friends of classical education, as well as to teachers and pupils. Not indeed that in either volume (unless perhaps in Mr. Roby's, which is the least fettered by precedent and prescription of the three) there is the originality manifested in Donaldson's larger grammar, or the masterly and independent treatment of Professor Key. But neither is this needed or desirable in books for the use of schools; and in so far as they avoid going too far into the open sea, and prefer "primi legere littoris oram," they do wisely, and are better accommodated to the safe guidance of youth. Originality is apt to indulge in crotchets, and it is far from desirable that these should be adopted, along with the wholesome matter set before them, by boys not mature enough to pick and choose judiciously. The great aim of each of the volumes before us has evidently been simplification and methodical arrangement, as well as the ministration of clear explanations and sound reasons for every step in syntax. But each volume has its distinguishing and distinct feature and characteristic. Mr. Wilkins, whilst laying down a system of

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syntax somewhat novel and strange in parts, especially to those who are habituated to the earlier grammars, is enabled, through his copious exercises, to impress each step upon the memory far more indelibly than if he had depended on the two or three examples which commonly illustrate a rule of grammar. Mr. Bryce has the advantage of enclosing within the covers of the same book, not only his syntax and its rules, but fifty pages of Latin extracts for translation (illustrated by useful and pertinent notes), which afford an excellent and ready field on which to test that syntax and those rules. Mr. Roby simply puts forth a grammar, but what the others gain in furnishing ground for test, proof, and practice, he in some degree compensates in the clearness of his arrangement, the conciseness of his "dicta," and the apt choice of his examples. In many respects, after a careful survey, we opine that his is the best and most useful work of the three, though it admits of question whether in his nomenclature and classifications there are not too many refinements, which practised teachers may fairly suspect to be too subtle and abstruse for boys. He, no doubt, is persuaded otherwise; but it is one thing, as we have often observed, for the actual coiner of new rules and systems to impress them upon his own pupils, and another for other teachers, naturally not so completely wedded to them, to secure their acceptance with schoolboys generally.

In a comparative survey of these three volumes, we have noticed several points on which one or other is more clear and noteworthy than the rest; and, so far as space will allow, we proceed to place the more important of these before the reader.

To begin with that basis of all syntax, "the parts of a simple sentence, and the use of the parts of speech," we notice that Roby (sect. 143) follows Madvig (sect. 209 b, obs. 1) in ignoring the copula with which logic has made us familiar, and dividing each sentence into subject and predicate only. This view is partially accepted by Bryce, who, in page 129, says, "that *est* and *erat* connecting subject and predicate is called the copula, but that most verbs, *e.g.*, aquila volat, contain the predicate and the copula." Professor Key (sect. 874), whilst recognising the copula as a component part of every sentence, somewhat qualifies his recognition by saying, that this is so "in the view of some grammarians." We should gladly have learnt Mr. Wilkins's view hereupon, but we can only infer it from casual remarks about the verbs "sum" and "fio." It is a great advance in the right direction, in our opinion, to get rid of the "copula" as such, and to view the component parts of each simple sentence as essentially but two.

Going on from the consideration of the simplest form of sentence to one with various additions, viz., object, indirect object, secondary predicate, oblique predicate, etc., Mr. Roby, it seems to us, is sound in his views, but errs on the side of excessive refinement and technical nomenclature. Will a boy's head carry and retain without confusion all the terms which are given in the example to the rule about the oblique predicate (*i.e.*, the infinitive mood or noun) to which the object

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of the regular predicate is in turn the subject? "Fabius consul Papirium inimicum suum dixit tacitus dictatorem." "Here *consul* is an epithet of *Fabius*, forming part of his name; *dixit* is the primary predicate; *tacitus* is the secondary predicate; *inimicum suum* is an epithet of *Papirium*; *Papirium* is object of *dixit*, and subject to *dictatorem*; and *dictatorem* is an oblique predicate of *Papirium*." From this is evolved the rule that "a primary predicate is always a finite verb; a secondary predicate is a substantive or adjective used predicatively of the subject of the sentence: an oblique predicate is a substantive, adjective, or infinitive mood used predicatively of some substantive, which is in an oblique case." (See Roby, sect. 145-6.) Surely it would simplify matters to call *tacitus* the attribute of Fabius, and *dictatorem* a secondary object. Strictly speaking, it seems to us that such sentences as the above, and "Jubet Cicero Rullum tacere," may be broken up into two complete ideas or sentences, which are, for the exigencies of grammar, blended into one; and that it would be enough to explain to boys that *Rullum* is as much the subject of *tacere* as *Cicero* is of *jubet*. In this part of his syntax, Mr. Bryce keeps close to the beaten track, and, without denying Mr. Roby's principle, it may be doubted whether sections 3 and 4 of Bryce's synopsis do not furnish, in a simpler and more easily-remembered form, as much as schoolboys can take in. There is a more commendable simplicity, too, in Wilkins's rule (iii. p. 17), bearing on the example quoted above, that "many transitive verbs, which in the passive voice are copulative and take a double nominative, take in the active a double accusative—one of the object, the other of the predicate; *e.g.*, Ciceronem (obj.) unâ voce populus Romanus consulem (predicate) declaravit."

So far we have seen cause to commend Mr. Bryce above his competitors. We next turn to a rule, of which from his note in page 136 we gather that he has an incorrect notion. It concerns the double accusative; one of the person, the other of the thing, after verbs of asking, teaching, entreating, etc. In his note he remarks that "the accusative of the thing is really an accusative of kindred signification, and therefore merely completes the meaning of the verb." Apply this to "Cæsar flagitat frumentum Æduos," or "Legati Cæsarem pacem poscunt," and is the position tenable that "frumentum" and "pacem" are "cognate accusatives?" Roby (sect. 171) has stated the rule about this double accusative much better. "If a verb, as verbs of teaching, concealing, asking, can have a direct object, either a person or a thing, it can have both together; *e.g.*, Docet Catonem Græcas literas." Compare "Docebo eum posthac tacere" (sect. 171). The natural result of Mr. Bryce's theory is, that when he comes to instances of passives, of which the actives take a double accusative, he resorts to some contradictory explanation: as, for instance, upon "poscebatur segetes" (Ovid, *Met.* i. v. 50, p. 98), where, if he were consistent, he would hold "segetes" to be a cognate accusative, he remarks, in a note, that "segetes" is an accusative of limitation. Wilkins (page 20) and Roby (page 97, sect. 171, obs.) rightly agree,

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in substance, that in the case of the passive construction of verbs, taking two accusatives in the active, that of the thing is retained, while that of the person becomes the nominative and the subject.

In Rule viii. pp. 21-2, Wilkins lays down that the accusative neuter of a pronoun or numeral adjective, and the indeclinable "nihil," are sometimes subjoined to intransitive verbs, especially those denoting a state of mind *to show the compass or extent of an action*. Roby (sect. 175) terms this the accusative of extent of action of the verb, expressed by neuter adjective of definition or quantity. And Key (sect. 909) calls it the neuter "denoting quantity." Wilkins follows Madvig (sect. 229); but, with all submission, we are inclined to think that in such phrases as "nihil irascor," "aliquid succenseo," "plurimum possunt," the neuter adjectives are as much accusatives of limitation, definition, or reference, as those set under that head, or a corresponding term, in Wilkins, Rule xi. page 26; Roby, sect. 177 d; and Bryce, p. 137 g. The last-mentioned omits to class under any head whatever the case of neuter accusative pronouns in this construction.

In giving rules respecting the dative case, Wilkins adopts Dr. Donaldson's view, that "verbs compounded with the prepositions 'ad, ante, circum,' etc., take a dative when they have a secondary meaning, in which the primary force of the preposition is lost; whilst if the force of the preposition is clearly felt, it is subjoined with its case to the compound verb, instead of the dative." Madvig holds that the difference lies in the lack or presence of local relations; but it seems to us that Wilkins adopts the sounder theory. On this question Roby is silent in the body of his work, though in his preface (p. xii.) he says that the dative after such verbs, when it occurs, is only the common dative of "the indirect object;" which, in sect. 178, he says follows transitive verbs having a direct object, as well as intransitives with or without an accusative of extent. Bryce may be quite right, but yet does not touch the main question, when he classes these datives after compound verbs, under the head of verbs of "advantage or disadvantage."

Mr. Roby is the most clear in his distinction (sect. 195) between the *subjective* and the *objective* genitive, *i.e.*, as dependent on the question whether the word put in the genitive is the subject or object of the action, etc., indicated by the substantive on which it depends. This is substantially the distinction drawn by Professor Key, as quoted by Mr. Wilkins, but that gentleman in his rule (p. 46) puts it less succinctly than Mr. Roby.

When treating of the ablative of the manner, Mr. Wilkins notices that if no adjective accompany the noun, "cum" is usually added, except in the case of ablatives, which have become virtually adverbs (cf. Wilkins, 72, rule iii.; Key, sect. 1009). Roby puts this with his usual love of technicality, in sect. 193 d: "the manner generally requires the addition of a nominal or pronominal adjective, as oblique predicate, or the preposition *cum*;" and then notices exceptions in a foot-note.

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Wilkins states (p. 74, rule iv. 1) that "the ablative after 'fungor,' 'fruor,' etc., is an ablative of means or material." This would surprise those who cling to the old Eton grammar. But if we turn to Roby (p. 106, sect. 193, and note, *ibid.*), we shall find this statement so clearly explained, and guarded from misconception, as to be, we think, unanswerable. He is, however, almost too subtle when, with regard to the ablative of comparison (which Wilkins, p. 83-4, merely states, and does not classify), he refers it to an ablative of origin (sect. 188), *e.g.*, "Major Achille;" "greater than Achilles," *i.e.*, "greater if you take Achilles as a starting-point." He seems to have a misgiving that it is referable rather to the "ablative of attendant cause," inasmuch as "a person is 'magnus' in himself, but 'major' only in consequence of some one else possessing size and excellence."

As to "ablatives absolute," we have found more satisfaction in Mr. Bryce's note on Cornelius Nepos, c. iv. pp. 169 and 170, than in Mr. Wilkins' view in p. 89-90; or in Roby's manner of ignoring them as a distinct construction (cf. 193 d, 191 b). We have also to bear witness to his great acuteness in his treatment of the infinitive as a verbal substantive in the nominative or accusative, which will be found in sect. ix. (p. 148-9). Wilkins does not dwell upon this very important key to the whole usage of the infinitive; but Roby lays it down in sect. 245, and bases on it all the uses of the infinitive, as (1.) object; (2.) oblique predicate with subject in accusative; (3.) as absolute subject, or subject in conjunction with its own subject in the accusative; (4.) as used in exclamations, as a subject or object to a verb understood; and (5.) as predicate to a subject in the nominative case, *i.e.*, the historic infinitive. This is very exhaustive and comprehensive.

We have not space to dwell upon the sections in each of the volumes before us which treat of the "oratio obliqua;" "the finite verb;" the "gerund and gerundive;" "the supine in *u*;" "the participles;" "the subjunctive mood" in its many aspects; and many other interesting questions. On most of these topics we find some novel and interesting light thrown by one or other of the gentlemen whose works we are reviewing. As an illustration of this observation, we call attention to the remarks of Mr. Wilkins (p. 181) on the limited action of the Latin infinitive (which with its gerunds is the substantive of the verb), as compared with the Greek infinitive, which is, through the article, declinable in all its cases; to Mr. Roby's lucid summary of Donaldson and Key's reasons for deeming the "future in -dus" not really *a passive*, but *a present active participle* (sect. 254 b, note); and to Mr. Bryce's reference of the supine in "u" to an ablative of limitation, coming under the category of such phrases as "æger pedibus." We have already trespassed on the patience of readers, and can but add, in conclusion, that while the palm of originality is best earned by Mr. Roby, the safest track is that of Mr. Wilkins,—Mr. Bryce meanwhile exhibiting a judicious mixture of the best features noteworthy in the others. It is invidious to class them in order of merit. All have deserved well of "the republic of letters." Each

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has done no little to render popular and accessible a more philosophic view of Latin grammar than has yet been vouchsafed to boys in an elementary treatise.

The Choëphoræ of Æschylus and Scholia, Revised and Interpreted. By JOHN F. DAVIES, B.A., Assistant Master in Portora Royal School, Enniskillen. London: Bell & Daldy, 1862.

THE Choëphoræ is not only the most difficult play of the Trilogy called by Aristophanes the Orestea: it is perhaps the most difficult play in the whole surviving dramatic literature of Greece. This is mainly due to the great corruptness of text, which, in a minor degree, is shared by all the dramas of Æschylus, and which in many passages defies explanation and sets conjecture at naught. To meet this difficulty, editors have generally adopted one or other of two courses. Either they have smoothed the reader's progress by admitting (as, notably, Hermann and Dindorf have admitted) conjectural emendations to a large extent; or they have simply been contented (like Professor Conington) to erect a finger-post (†) at the corrupt passage, to signify that there is no thoroughfare that way. Neither of these methods can be satisfactory; and we must await the not very probable discovery of a better manuscript than the Medicean before the text of Æschylus shall cease to be a *campus grammaticorum* and a "dim and perilous way" to the student. Not a little light may be contributed by the expected recension of Heimsöth, who, like the geologist, can see cropping out from below the Medicean manuscript the traces of an earlier formation. Meanwhile, we must make the best of this noble author that we can, and console ourselves, with Mr. Davies, that "from the corrupt state of the text, and the great obscurity of many passages in these dramas, they are eminently useful as a means of improving critical power, and inducing the habit of searching scrutiny into any subject of thought." (Preface, p. v.)

Mr. Davies is a well-informed reader of Æschylus, and has furnished the student of the Choëphoræ with a very useful edition. His plan will be found a good one. First comes an Introduction, which treats of the place held by the Choëphoræ in the Trilogy,—of the features in its composition for which Æschylus was indebted to the Odyssey,—and of the progress and scenic arrangements of the plot. Then follows the text, in which Mr. Davies has endeavoured to steer clear of the ultra-conservatism of his predecessor Conington, while giving a yet wider berth to the excessive emendation of Dindorf's edition (Oxford, 1851). The notes, occasionally selected but mostly original, at the foot of the page are exclusively devoted to vindicating the readings adopted, and to warning the student of any deviation from manuscript authority by citing the text of the Codex Mediceus. The explanatory matter at the end of the play consists, *first*, of the Scholia from the Medicean manuscript, which, in their turn, are corrected and annotated like the text itself; and *secondly*, of a very full Commentary on such difficulties in the play as are likely to

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embarrass the student. Interpretation is clearly Mr. Davies's primary object, and he adopts the views of his predecessors, or advances his own, with a judicious and creditable independence. He makes a frequent and occasionally a very happy use of parallel passages from classical authors, and also from our own Shakspeare. The most important of his original contributions to the elucidation of the play is that in which he shows that the chorus consisted not of Trojan captives (as previous commentators had held) but of Greek ones, supposed to have been taken in the days of Atreus "in some of those wars with surrounding states, of which there are many traditions" (Introduction, p. xiv.) A careful perusal of the text and notes has left nothing on our minds with which we are particularly disposed to quarrel, except, indeed, in the case of such very difficult passages as *μένει χρονίζοντ', ἢν τύχῃ* (v. 64), where opinions are so conflicting that a critic of Mr. Davies's stamp is quite entitled to abide by his own. His edition deserves recommendation as being a very useful one for the student, and as forming an excellent contribution to that higher style of classical editing represented so recently by Conington's Choëphoræ, Palmer's Œdipus Coloneus, Badham's Ion, and, generally, by the Æschylus and Euripides of Mr. Paley.

Principia Latina. Part III. *An Introduction to Latin Poetry.* By William Smith, LL.D. John Murray, 1863.

The plan of this introduction to Latin versification is such as to commend it to the adoption of all who take the trouble of comprehending it. It is progressive, without undue velocity; and conducts the tyro who is just on the threshold of hexameters and pentameters, by a regular gradual ascent, to the standing-point at which he may calmly rest, and care no longer for gaining, but thenceforward rather for keeping his vantage-ground. In truth, a survey of the useful work before us, the principle of which is to be gleaned in some measure from the title-page (where its contents are enumerated as—I. Easy Hexameters and Pentameters. II. Eclogæ Ovidianæ. III. Latin Prosody and Metre. IV. First Latin Verse Book), leads us to pronounce it a far more valuable and veritable *Gradus ad Parnassum* than the somewhat deceptive apparatus so named in the days of our own verse-spinning boyhood. To perfect Dr. Smith's Preface, we should like to suggest one additional hint for enhancing the value of his comprehensive and compact hand-book to Latin verse. This is, that the Ovidian extracts should be in every case committed to memory. It is impossible to overrate the benefit of this exercise, both as good general drill, and as furnishing ample vocabularies for translation of English verse into Latin, as well as copious examples on which a learner may test and prove the prosodiacal rules that follow. Too much Ovid cannot be at the fingers' ends of verse-writers. No other Latin elegiac writer is a safe model. With the Poetical Reading Book, based on a popular Tirocinium in German use, there is no fault to be found, and the explanatory notes are

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both useful and suggestive. It is perhaps over-critical to vent one faint sigh over the reappearance of so many of the old stock Ovidian extracts, to be found in all *Eclogæ* whatsoever. The *Tristia* and *Remedia Amoris*, and other poems of Corinna's bard, contain many gems not yet hackneyed, which would be fresher and less tedious to the teacher. For the rest of the volume, we would point to the memorial verses added as helps for remembering differences of quantity, and of meaning, in certain words of the same form, *e.g.*—

"Bellandi *cupĭdo* damno est sua sæpe *cupīdo*;"
"Infans dum *lactet*, nutrix hunc sedula *lactat*,"

as a new feature, and one which strikes us as not the least valuable in the volume. The prosody is concise and sound. We could have wished to see a note of stronger warning to boys against the use of a short vowel before *sm*, as in *lucente smaragdis*, and other such cases, which, though lawful, are not expedient; and we think that a practical supplement to sect. 57, obs. 9, p. 104, which treats of the construction of a pentameter, might with advantage have been added in some such form as this: "In composing an elegiac couplet, try always to construct your pentameter, and specially the last penthemimer first of all," a rule which we have never known to fail. This is worth more than the being "up" in such terms as a *proceleusmaticus* and an *Antispastus*, which are of little practical importance. The fourth part of the volume, viz., the "verses to be arranged," which extends over eleven progressive sections, will be found highly useful and satisfactory; nor have we any hesitation in recommending the book as a complete and well-executed manual.

A Practical Greek Accidence: With Progressive Exercises. By C. Matheson, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's, Oxford. Longmans, 1863.

It is easier to learn than to unlearn. We can quite conceive that boys beginning Greek grammar at Blackheath Proprietary School, under Mr. Matheson's guidance, will reap the benefit of his effort to combine "principles with simplicity" in a measure exceeding the pains bestowed on this point in Wordsworth's Greek Grammar and others. One of the chief hardships, however, of a boy's school course is the variety of grammars in use; and it is a marvel that English schoolboys do not coin a proverb on the subject, based on the adage, *Quot homines, tot sententiæ*. To a boy working his way up to the higher forms in the school whence this brochure emanates, familiarity with it will, no doubt, be a safe passport; but if he goes elsewhere, he will be perplexed by having to work up other grammars on a different plan of arrangement. Without disputing the author's main principles, we would illustrate this difference by remarking the absence, *in initio*, of any division of declensions into simple and contract. We are not told of the latter having an existence until we have done with the former.

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Again, even though the definite article be of the third declension, we see no ground for deviating from the old grammars, which declined it before dealing with the first or second declension of substantives. It seems, too, an inartistic anticipation to involve exercises on the substantives of the earlier declensions with the use of adjectives of two terminations, such as θανασιμός, which should wait till their time came. But the work, on the whole, is well and ably thought out and executed, as may be seen on a reference to the tabular form of the declensions (p. 5), the rules for forming the cases of the fifth declension (pp. 14, 15), the comparison of adjectives (p. 20), and the classification of pronouns-adjective (pp. 23, 24). The tenses, etc., of the Greek verb are completely and philosophically treated (see p. 26, etc.), and the exhibition of but one verb in μι is justified on sound principles. In running over the brief view of the Greek prepositions, pp. 57, 58, it strikes us that it might with advantage be perused by the writer of an article on Greek Testaments in the last *Quarterly Review*. This Greek Accidence has the further merit of brevity, and is well worth perusal.

Ancient Leaves; or, Translations and Paraphrases from Poets of Greece and Rome. By D'Arcy W. Thompson. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas, 1863.

If Tennyson were to translate Homer, he would find, if we mistake not, in this volume of *Ancient Leaves* not a few lines which he might readily adopt as his own. "The Shield of Achilles," and "the Death of Hector," read with all the quaint sweetness, and delicate music, and subtle power of "Idylls of the King." We do not remember to have seen any translations which not only caught up so fully the ancient spirit, but transfused it into language so free from classicisms (if the word may be allowed), so terse and strong in its Saxon purity, so melodious in its rhythm. Take, for example, the following description of the revenge of Achilles on the body of his foe:—

"The tendons of both feet
Between the ankle and the heel he pierced,
And fasten'd thongs of leather thereunto,
And bound him to the car, and let the head
Trail on the ground, and stepp'd upon the car,
And lifted up the splendid spoils, and smote
The steeds to gallop, and away they flew:
And as the corse was trail'd along, the dust
Rose underneath, and the dark glossy hair
Was scatter'd in the dust, and in the dust
Was dragg'd the face, afore so beautiful—
For Zeus had granted to his mortal foes
Thus to dishonour him in his own dear land.
And while the face was trailing in the dust,
His mother saw her child, and tore her hair,
And far away from her with both hands flung
Her shining head-dress, and shriek'd out aloud;
And piteously his father groan'd, and all
The town was filled with wailing and shrill cries;
And it was even as though Ilium
From crown to base were smouldering in fire."

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There is also a Tennysonian ring in such lines as

"Such was the counsel given the graceless man;"

and

"And let not passion master thee so far
That thou should'st tread on right to glut thy hate."

Sometimes, however, his rendering of such interlocutors as Agamemnon's

ἀλλ' εὖ γε μέντοι τοῦτ' ἐπίστασ',

into,

"I yield me then, but *I must state* withal,"

strikes us as being a little too parliamentary.

The longest poem in the book, in which these lines occur, is a translation of the "Ajax" of Sophocles. Considering the thoroughly English character of the language and the thought—for it is distinctly a work for English readers—it is remarkable how close the translator has kept to the original. We would recommend those who wish to test this, to compare with the original Mr. Thompson's translation of Teucer's famous appeal to Agamemnon on behalf of the dead body of Ajax, beginning,

φεῦ, τοα θανόντος ὡς ταχεῖά τις βροτοῖς
χάρις διαῤῥεῖ,

and rendered,

"Alas! when once a man is dead, how soon
The memory of his good deeds fades away!"

reminding us of Shakspeare's

"The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interred with their bones,"

or the parallel passage,

"Men's evil manners live in brass,
Their virtues we write in water."

We might point to other Shakspearian parallels; for example, the chorus wails over the body of Ajax,

"When thou didst fall, we all fell down with thee,"

just as Antony over the body of Cæsar has cried,

"There I, and you, and all of us fell down."

Then the strophe sung by Ajax in his madness, contains the line,

μόνοι τ' ἐμμένοντες ὀρθῷ νόμῳ,

paraphrased rather than translated

"Faithful among the faithless found,"

which cannot fail to suggest Milton's description of Abdiel,

"Faithful found
Among the faithless, faithful only he."

We might point to many other examples which show how well Mr. Thompson understands the translator's art, and how happily he has

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often rendered a complex thought by a familiar line or a simple proverb. Thus, when Ajax appeals to his comrades, crying,

"For pity's sake, your help forbear;
Help not, but kill; help not, but kill."

the chorus replies,

εὔφημα φώνει μὴ κακὸν κακῷ διδοὺς
ἄκος, πλέον τὸ πῆμα τῆς ἄτης τίθει,

which is well rendered,

"Hush, hush, the cure were worse than the disease."

And similarly the sense of the line,

οὐ γὰρ γένοι τ' ἂν ταῦθ' ὅπως οὐχ ὧδ' ἔχειν,

is fully, though freely, given by the familiar

"What's done cannot be undone."

The volume also contains several beautiful paraphrases of "Ceres and Proserpine," as well as some admirable translations of minor pieces from Claudius, Ovid, Catullus, and Statius. From the latter we quote the following gem from Statius (*Silvæ*, v. 5, 79-87):—

"ON THE DEATH OF A CHILD.

"Shall I not mourn thee, darling boy? with whom
Childless, I missed not children of my own,
I who first caught and press'd thee to my breast,
And call'd thee mine, and taught thee sounds and words,
And solved the riddle of thy murmurings,
And stoop'd to catch thee creeping on the ground,
And propp'd thy steps, and ever had my lap
Ready, if drowsy were those little eyes,
To rock them with a lullaby to sleep;
Thy first word was my name, thy fun my smile,
And not a joy of thine but came from me."

We cannot conclude without commending the beautiful typography and elegant binding of this little work, as well as the exquisite frontispiece by Mr. Clark Stanton.

A Compendium of Mathematical Geography. By A. H. Dick, M.A. With Preface by J. S. Laurie. London: Longmans, 1863. Pp. 238.

This work supplies a real desideratum in school literature, and supplies it well and fully. In most manuals of physical, and in many of general geography, mathematical geography holds a place; but besides the meagreness of treatment in these cases, as regards the pupils, there is hardly a work in the English language which a teacher who wishes to know more about the subject than his pupils, can adopt as a guide in his studies. Such a work, however, the present volume supplies; and teachers especially are indebted to Mr. Laurie for suggesting the work, and to Mr. Dick for the thorough and masterly manner in which he has carried it out. The book contains special chapters on the form of the earth and its magnitude, a very interesting

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chapter on the rotation of the earth on its axis, and one not less so on the phenomena resulting from the form and different motions of the earth. The work is primarily based on Prettner's *Mathematische Geographie;* but the best French and English astronomical and geographical works have also been consulted by the author.

A Dictionary of Dates relating to all Ages and Nations: for Universal Reference, etc. etc. By JOSEPH HAYDN. *Eleventh Edition, revised and greatly enlarged* by BENJAMIN VINCENT. London: Edward Moxon, 1863.

THIS is, without doubt, the best book of reference in the language. It is convenient in form, admirable in arrangement, comprehensive in matter, most thorough and recent in information; for it has the great advantage over such stupendous works as the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, —of which a new edition is called for once in a generation,—that a new edition of it is issued every year or two, and that its facts are thus brought down to the very week of publication. Our high estimate of this work is no hastily formed opinion. It is the result of the experience of a good many years. In that time, three editions of the work have passed through our hands—though a much larger number has been published. Our second edition was the seventh of the work,—the first edited by Mr. Vincent. Besides numerous corrections and improvements in detail, the actual additions of new matter increased the bulk of the work in that edition by twenty pages. Of the two editions now before us, the later (the eleventh) exceeds the earlier (the seventh) by no fewer than sixty pages; while the letterpress in each of the 784 pages of the eleventh is fully a third of an inch wider than that of the seventh, a difference which represents at least other sixty pages on the work.

The additions and emendations which we find in the details of the work are both numerous and valuable. The most important feature in this respect which we have noticed consists in making the information under special heads more complete and more systematic. In illustration of this we may refer to the articles on the Church of England and on Architecture. In the seventh edition we find many useful particulars mentioned, but in a promiscuous and general way. In the eleventh edition these and many new particulars are thrown into the form of a chronological and historical table. In the article "Jews," which brings down their history from the "Calling of Abraham, B.C. 1921," to their admission into Parliament, 1860, and the additional privileges granted to them in Russia and Poland, June 1862,—we find an accurate and useful synchronistic table of the kings of Judah and Israel inserted in the new edition. Under the "United States" we have a complete history of the present war—the events since 1860 filling three double-columned pages. The events in China are brought down to July 1862; in Italy to December 18, 1862; in Greece to the same month; in England, to the visit of the Princess Alexandra of Denmark in Novem-

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ber. The article "Cotton" occupied, in seventh edition, no more than thirteen lines. In eleventh edition it occupies a full page, and gives, in a supplementary note, the state of the Lancashire distress in December 1862. In the last edition, too, "Essays and Reviews" take their place as a historical fact, just as "Tractarianism" and "Puseyism" did in the former.

But it were an endless task to go on specifying the additions and improvements which may be noted in every page of this work. We shall only further illustrate this point by referring to the article on "Education,"—a heading which we missed from the seventh edition altogether. Our readers, we are sure, will thank us for quoting the article entire :—

EDUCATION. The art of developing the physical, intellectual, and moral faculties of man, has occupied the greatest minds in all ages, such as Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, Quintilian, Bacon, Milton, Locke, Rousseau, etc. In England the earliest schools for the lower classes were those attached to the monasteries; for the higher classes halls and colleges were gradually founded (see *Oxford* and *Cambridge*).

William of Wykeham planted the school at Winchester, whence arose his colleges at that place and Oxford, . . A.D. 1373
Eton College was founded by Henry VI., . 1440
In the thirty years following the Reformation education was greatly promoted, and many grammar schools were erected and endowed by Edward VI. and Elizabeth.
Westminster School founded by Elizabeth, ... 1560
Queen Anne was the zealous friend of education. While princess, she founded the Grey-coat School, Westminster, in 1698, and cordially supported the setting up parochial charity schools (one of which had been established in 1688 at St. Margaret's, Westminster).
Nearly 2000 of these schools were established in Great Britain and Ireland, principally by the instrumentality of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, ... 1741
Mr. Robert Raikes originated *Sunday Schools* about 1781
In 1833 there were 16,828 of these schools with 1,548,890 scholars.
Sunday-School Union was formed in . 1802
Joseph Lancaster, a young Quaker, began to instruct the children of the poor, . 1796
He had 90 pupils before he was 18 years old, and 1000 pupils in 1798
To provide teachers he invented the monitorial system. In consequence of his exertions the present British and Foreign School Society was founded with the name of the 'Royal Lancasterian Institution,' etc., ... 1805
This being unexclusive was followed by the institution of the Church of England 'National Society for Educating the Poor' on Dr. Bell's system, . . . 1811
Infant Schools began about . . . 1815
The Charity Commission, appointed at the instance of Mr. (now Lord) Brougham, published their reports on Education in 37 volumes folio, ... 1819-40
In 1834, the Government began annual grants (the first £20,000), which continued till 1839, when the Committee of the Privy-Council on Education was constituted for the distribution of the money. The grant for Great Britain in 1852 was £150,000; 1856, 1857, £451,213; 1860, £798,951; 1861, £803,794. For Ireland, 1860, £270,722; 1861, £285,377. From 1839 to 1860, £3,655,067 were granted for Education. The grant for education, science, and art, in 1861, was £1,358,996.
In 1836, the Home and Colonial School Society was instituted, and about 1843 were formed the Voluntary School Society and the Congregational Board of Education. In 1851, out of a population of 17,927,609, there were 2,466,481 day scholars.
Ragged School Union established, . . 1844
A great Educational conference took place at Willis's Rooms, the Prince Consort in the chair, . . . June 22-24, 1857
The Industrial Schools Act passed in . —
Middle-Class Examinations from the University of Oxford began in the summer of 1858
The examiners granted the degree of A.A. to many persons at Liverpool, Leeds, etc.; similar examinations from Cambridge took place in the autumn, and are to be continued.
Report of Commissioners on Popular Education (appointed 1858), published March 18, 1861, led to the Minute of the Committee of the Privy-Council on Education, establishing a Revised Code of Regulations, adopted July 21, 1861, to come into operation after March 31, 1862. It decreed regular examinations of the pupils, payment by results, evening schools for adults, and other changes, which raised a storm of opposition from the clergy and schoolmasters. The subject was much agitated in Parliament (March 25, 28, 1862); but eventually a compromise was effected . . May 5, 1862
Official instructions for the administration of the Revised Code issued . Sept. 1862

As to the subjects which its plan embraces, it is equally difficult to

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say what it does and what it does not include. Its contents, however, may be roughly described as social, historical, biographical, antiquarian, parliamentary, geographical, naval, military, ecclesiastical, technological, scientific, artistic, educational, literary, and dramatic!

We should add, that while the articles are arranged alphabetically, there is at the end of the volume a very full alphabetical index of persons and subjects named or referred to in the body of the work. As the work, besides, is clearly and beautifully printed, it is as pleasant and easy to refer to as, when referred to, it is useful and instructive.

Genealogical and Historical Diagrams Illustrative of the History of Scotland, England, France, and Germany, from the Ninth Century to the present Time. By WILLIAM GRAHAM, LL.D. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd, 1862.

THIS elegant and substantial quarto contains twenty-four separate tables, in which are delineated the genealogies of the royal houses of the countries mentioned in the above title. Of these, twelve are devoted to the dynasties of England, seven to those of France, three to Scotland before the Union, and two to the House of Hapsburg in Germany and Spain. The diagrams have been constructed with great care, and their arrangement and mechanical execution is marvellously clear. They also contain a great mass of valuable information, for the genealogical current is accompanied through all its intricate windings by a solid margin of historical note and comment, illustrative of the successive reigns. The volume evidently represents the cumulative results of the labour and research of years.

No one will question the utility, nay the necessity, of genealogy in attempting to unravel the intricacies of "wars of succession." Every practical teacher knows how a few names and lines on the black board make perfectly clear and plain what pages of well-meant explanation only involve in greater obscurity. What a simple ground-plan is to a wordy description of a battle-field, and the disposition of opposing armies,—that, such a map as No. 5 in this series (the Houses of York and Lancaster) is to whole chapters of the ordinary historical text-books: in the one case, each fact is brought under notice singly and out of connexion; in the other, all the facts and their inter-relations are grasped by a single *coup-d'œil.* The historical student, therefore, could have no better companion in his reading than these tables: indeed, without the information they contain, there can be no sound or accurate knowledge of the history of modern Europe.

It is advisedly, however, that we style the work "a companion" to the reading of history. We should seriously deprecate the idea of placing this as the only historical text-book in the pupil's hands. History must necessarily become a cold, formal, and lifeless thing when genealogical tables are not merely used as aids, but are made its very basis and back-bone. The tax upon the memory in getting up these intricate and comprehensive diagrams, when that is done

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apart from the living page of history, must be excessive and prostrating in the utmost degree. It is, however, the kind of thing that tells in a competitive examination; and these tables are so good and so tempting, that they are almost certain to be put to this "ill end." While we thus object to the use of this work as an exclusive text-book, we not only approve most highly of its use by the student for constant consultation in the course of his historical reading, but we beg to suggest to teachers of history that they should lay it open on the desk before them while giving their daily lessons.

A School Atlas of General Geography. By A. Keith Johnston, F.R.S.E., etc. A New Edition. Edinburgh and London: W. Blackwood and Sons, 1863.

The complaint made in our notice of the last preceding edition of this admirable Atlas, that it was merely a re-issue of the former edition, can by no means be applied to the present one. It is "a new edition" in the best and fullest sense in which that term can be applied to a geographical work. Since the last edition was published, Mr. Keith Johnston has been engaged in the preparation of his Royal Atlas, beyond doubt the greatest geographical work of our time; and the vast stores of information which he was compelled to bring together for that work, have, in the present Atlas, been made available for educational purposes. We have already, in these pages (vol. i. p. 103), described the general features of this work, and have accorded praise by no means too high to its accuracy, its practical utility, and its beauty of execution. At present, therefore, we shall confine ourselves to directing the attention of teachers to a few of the important additions and emendations which this new edition contains, and which entitle the work to be considered, in our opinion, the best, the fullest, the most accurate and recent, as well as artistically the most beautiful atlas that can be put into the school-boy's hands.

In the first place, the number of separate maps is increased from twenty-five to twenty-six; but this does not fully represent the number of new plates in the volume. Belgium, the Netherlands, and Denmark, which formerly straggled over a single plate, now occupy more compactly two half-plates; Denmark, owing probably to its increased importance at present in British eyes, being allotted an independent existence. Moreover, in the single map, the scale was 70 miles to an inch; now, the scale of Belgium and the Netherlands is increased to 28 miles, and that of Denmark to 42 miles to an inch. Next, we have a new and much improved map of Asia, on a scale nearly a third larger than that of the old one; the former is 560, the latter 750 miles per inch. This alteration is all the more important that the separate maps of Asiatic countries are necessarily fewer than those of Europe; and in the case of China and the east of Asia generally, the advantage is very great and very apparent. This change, however, has pushed out of the plate the East India Islands. But for

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these, better accommodation is provided in the general map of Oceania, which, in the 1861 edition, superseded that of Australia in the older editions of the Atlas. In the new map, it is true, the scale of Australia is only one-third of that in the old plate; but the enlarged plans of New Zealand, and of New South Wales and Victoria more than compensate for this diminution. Here, too, the emendations in detail are very fully exemplified, the author having availed himself of the results of the most recent explorations. The territorial changes in Italy are now fully recognised. The same degree of minuteness and freshness of information is noticeable in the map of Africa, in the region of the Upper Nile, as well as in Cape Colony, and in that of America in the western portion of the British Possessions.

We should add that, in this edition, the index is very much extended. In the last edition, it comprised thirty pages of three columns each; in the new edition, it contains forty pages of four columns each; which, making allowance for differences of type and arrangement, is equivalent to an addition of nearly two-thirds of its bulk. We may add, that while the mechanical parts of the work are as beautiful, from their clearness and uniformity, as in former editions, the colours are in this one more delicate and subdued, a feature not only better artistically, but more useful practically, for it allows the type to stand out with greater boldness and force. We only wish further that, as in the case of the Royal Atlas, the plates had been numbered, for facility of reference, outside as well as within.

The Geography of British History: A Geographical Description of the British Islands at successive periods, from the earliest times to the present day, etc. etc. By WILLIAM HUGHES, F.R.G.S. London: Longmans, 1863.

THE famous Randolph, when Regent of Scotland, is said once to have hanged a peasant for stealing his own plough with the view of beggaring his neighbours, whom the law required to replace stolen property. We have to bring a similar charge against Mr. Hughes. He has plagiarized his own book. He published in 1851 a *Manual of British Geography*, a copy of which we happen to possess; and we find that very large portions of it are transferred, *verbatim et literatim*, to the present work.

Now we don't object to Mr. Hughes using up his old material when he had again to go over the same ground. But we do object to his putting forth this as an entirely new work, telling us that it "owes its origin to the evening classes of King's College, London," for which he "felt the want" of a suitable text-book, but never breathing the faintest hint, either in preface or elsewhere, as to the "Manual" which bears, and really does credit to, his name.

We might attest the obligations of Mr. Hughes of 1863 to Mr. Hughes of 1851, by parallel columns extending over far more pages than we can spare for such a purpose. Reference need only be made

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to the chapters descriptive of physical features—including tables of rivers, with their lengths and the areas of their basins, etc., and to those on the geology and the mineral productions of Britain. It is a remarkable evidence of the "constancy of nature" that the tables of mean temperature and of average rain-fall show exactly the same figures now, that they did twelve years ago. The same may be said of the table showing the proportions of cultivable and uncultivable land in England and Wales; it was given in 1851 without authority, and it is exactly repeated in 1863, without alteration, note, or comment. But the most striking feature of resemblance is in the maps, three of which are precisely the same in the two works,—printed, we are bound to say, from the very same plates.

Coming now to the book itself, the first thing that strikes us about it is its inordinate bulk—at least for school use. A volume of 720 pages on British Geography! where will there be either time or room for the geography of the rest of the globe,—supposing this volume ever to be gone through? The chief objection we some time ago took to Mr. Mackay's excellent *Manual of Modern Geography* was its great size. Yet that work, in 760 pp., discusses the mathematical, physical, and political geography of the whole globe. What shall we say then of a work which devotes 720 pages to the geography of the British Empire alone? This, however, is regarding the work as a school-book. It may still be infinitely useful as a consulting-book, a gazetteer for teachers, for which by its copious index (28 pp.) it is well adapted.

And this leads us to say that the book has very decided merits. It is a great storehouse of facts and statistics connected with almost every relation in which the British people stand to British soil. The results of varied and considerable research are put together with much discrimination and skill. And though it would have been in many respects better that the book had been two books,—one a historical geography, the other a geographical history; this does not detract from the actual merit of the work as a copious and useful compilation.

It is by minute details that the accuracy of a book like this must be tested; and we wish that in this respect Mr. Hughes had been a little more careful and explicit. Thus he told us in 1851 that the number of cotton-mills in England in 1847 was "nearly 2000." In 1863, he tells us with cautious vagueness that the number "*exceeds* 2000." But while the number of mills thus hovers about 2000, the number of workers mounts from "more than 277,000," to "nearly half a million;" and yet in both cases it is added that "four-fifths of the total amount of power is supplied by steam." Again, the hosiery manufacture, which in 1851 was said to employ "*about* 50,000 persons," is said to employ "*above* 50,000 persons" in 1863. The quantity of beer brewed in 1863 remains the same as in 1851 (12,000,000 gals.), a statement surely admitting of easy contradiction. When we compare Mr. Hughes's statistics of trade with the official returns we find some startling discrepancies. He tells us that the annual import of wool into Britain "exceeds 120 millions;" but this is rather a vague rendering of the 143 millions to which (1861) it actually

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reaches. He gives the import of silk as 12 million lbs.; it is only 8½ millions. He under-estimates the imports of tea by 7 millions of pounds; he over-estimates that of coffee by no less than 24 millions of pounds. His estimate of the importation of brandy is nearly double what it should be. He sets down that of tobacco at 14 million pounds too much. In like manner he states the length of the railways open for traffic in England and Wales, as "above 7500 miles," when a reference to the last official returns would have shown him that it is exactly 7820. We must add that if Mr. Hughes could not get a later return than that of 1841 of the proportion of the manufacturing to the agricultural population of Scotland, he had better have omitted it altogether. If these points are worth giving at all in a text-book, they are worth giving accurately.

School-room Map of the Holy Land. By the Rev. Samuel Clark, M.A., F.R.G.S., etc. London: The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and the National Society, 1863.

The most striking feature of this large and beautiful map,—as of that of Europe by the same publishers, which we noticed some time ago,—is the prominence given in it to the physical aspect of the country. The rivers and mountains are laid down with such boldness and strength, and, at the same time with such clearness, that there can be no difficulty in seeing at a glance the river system and the prevailing slope of the country. At the same time, the map contains a large amount of topographical and historical information. It contains the division of the country at once into tribes, into kingdoms, and into Roman provinces. It distinguishes by differences of type the scriptural, classical, mediæval, and modern names of places, countries, and natural features. It distinguishes by different characters the Levitical cities, the cities of refuge, and the cities mentioned in the New Testament only. It marks specially sites more or less doubtful, contains the usual sign for a battle-field, and gives the heights of the chief mountains in English feet. Further, where important events are connected with special localities, it gives references to the relative parts of Scripture. Finally, the sheet contains enlarged maps of the neighbourhood of Jerusalem and of the district of Sinai. This seems to be very nearly all that such a map should, or even could comprise.

Phosphorescence, or the Emission of Light by Minerals, Plants, and Animals. By T. L. Phipson, Ph.D., F.C.S. London: Lovell, Reeve, & Co., 1862.

Dr. Phipson has succeeded in condensing into this little book nearly all that is known on the subject of which he treats. He gives first a detailed and critical account of the principal phenomena of phosphorescence in minerals, dead and living plants and animals, and then pro-

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ceeds to discuss the theories by which it has been sought to explain these phenomena. The first, or descriptive part of the work, is the larger, and, as might have been expected, the more satisfactory of the two; for while we have a most varied series of facts, our knowledge of the nature and cause of phosphorescence is extremely limited. None of the theories show any connexion between phosphorescence and any of the other properties of the substances which exhibit it.

Dr. Phipson's explanation of phosphorescence, after insolation, is as follows:—"The light of the sun, acting upon a mineral substance, occasions a certain vibration (electric, chemical, or magnetic); but this vibration not being able to continue when the action of the light ceases, that is, when the substance is placed in obscurity, the body gives back light whilst losing the vibration (electric, chemical, or magnetic) occasioned in it by the rays of the sun. *The body in question does not in this case give back the entire quantity of light it has received, but a quantity equivalent to the electric, chemical, or magnetic vibration induced in it by the direct influence of the solar light.*"—P. 190.

We think all will, to a certain extent, admit the probability of some such explanation, but it does not explain why only a few substances exhibit phosphorescence, and these in degrees quite unrelated to their other properties. Indeed, some substances which we might expect to possess the power of phosphorescence in a high degree, are entirely destitute of it; for instance, the compounds of iron, some of which have been observed to become luminous under the action of magnetism, and magnetic under the action of solar light. On the other hand, we know of no special magnetic or electric properties of the sulphides of calcium and barium to account for their remarkable phosphorescent power.

It is difficult to form a decided opinion on the claims of the two principal theories of animal phosphorescence, the one of which supposes combustion, and the other nervous force to be the source of the light. Dr. Phipson advocates the latter, and suggests that the nervous force may be first converted into electricity, and the latter by transmission through the imperfectly conducting phosphorescent organ into light. In explaining this theory, Dr. Phipson makes use of the singular expression,—"It is doubtless true that instinct is correlative with what are called the other modes of force."—P. 194. It seems to us, that instinct is rather a peculiar manner in which force is applied, than a "mode of force."

We can decidedly recommend this little book to all who wish to make themselves acquainted with this curious subject.

A Manual of Animal Physiology, for the use of Non-Medical Students; with an Appendix of Questions from various Examination Papers, including those for the B.A., London, for the last ten years. By John Shea, M.D. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1863.

This is one of a class of books called into existence by the great extension of the examination system. Its professed object is to enable

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a "non-medical" student to pass an examination on physiology. It is in fact a "cramming" book. The ideal of such a book seems to be that it should contain all that the student is likely to be asked, and nothing more. This ideal Dr. Shea has nearly realized. We have however some doubt whether, even for the purpose of cramming, such manuals are to be preferred to a fuller treatise on the subject, and for any other purpose they are useless. Mental as well as bodily digestion is facilitated by the *mass* of the food, and too great concentration is apt to produce nausea and rejection.

In the manual before us, the facts are generally stated with tolerable clearness and precision. We have observed a few exceptions to this; for instance at page 3, in speaking of the distinction between animals and vegetables, it is said, "a difference of chemical composition and of nutrition is most marked; for the most part *protein*, or, as they are termed, 'quaternary' compounds, are confined to animals, and 'ternary' to plants, the latter being destitute of nitrogen. This, however, only holds good as a general rule, as some vegetables contain protein." Dr. Shea cannot surely mean that protein compounds, such as gluten, are rare in the vegetable kingdom, and that ternary compounds, such as fat, *never* occur as constituents of animals; and yet this is the impression which the sentence quoted above would naturally convey. Again, at page 61, in the drawing of the section of the pharynx, the figure 3 is placed between the larynx and trachea, and is explained in the margin as "the larynx or windpipe." This might lead a "non-medical" reader to suppose that these two terms were synonymous.

The book contains a number of carefully selected illustrations from arpenter and Wilson, and some distinct diagrams by the author, and is on the whole a respectable specimen of its not very respectable class.

Biographical Outlines of English Literature. By David Pryde, M.A. For the Use of Schools. Edinburgh: Bell & Bradfute, 1862.

Both in plan and in execution this is an excellent work. There is great simplicity and much judgment in what it contains, great discretion in what it omits. The thought is vigorous; the style forcible and picturesque. Its critical spirit is bold without being dogmatic; keen, yet not captious. The opinions advanced are on the whole very reliable; and its method and manner generally are such as young people can easily grasp.

The author treats of our literature under nine periods, each of which has a well-marked characteristic, which is kept prominently before the reader. The social history of the country has been taken as the basis of this division; for the social character of an epoch is that which gives tone to, and is reflected in, its literature. In form, however, the the work is biographical. The notice of nearly every author's works and literary character is preceded by a notice of his life. By this

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means a substantial framework is provided, into which criticism and exposition may be conveniently wrought. By this means also we are enabled to see an author's relation to the age, and the historical events amongst which he lived. Social progress may explain literary progress, or the reverse; but the circumstance of a man's being out of harmony with his age may require special or personal reasons to explain it. Thus also the element of individual interest is introduced, and that always exerts a powerful charm on the youthful mind.

Mr. Pryde has acted judiciously in confining his attention chiefly to those authors who really have weight in our literary history, and has thus found space to make the literary and personal characteristics of each bulk in the reader's mind, while he has also been careful not to overload his pages with the mere names of books.

There is great originality and vigour in Mr. Pryde's style; a power of clear statement which is invaluable in a teacher, or a writer for youth. His exuberance, however, sometimes carries him into the use of expressions which are both redundant and harsh. He is too prone to employ double attributes. Society is "weltering and surging," kings are "selfish and grasping," language is "useful and effective," an effect is "splendid and varied;" we have "passages of sweet and fresh poetry . . . like green and fruitful oases" in the midst of a "savage and uninhabitable wilderness." Neither are we sure of the propriety of calling Alfred "a most indefatigable bookmaker," or of the correctness of "*thither assemble* a motley throng." And did Mr. Pryde mean a play upon words when he wrote, "This new mode hit the public taste, and the author began to be a man of mark?" It is scarcely elegant to say that Raleigh spread his cloak "over a *puddle*" to save the Queen's feet. It is surely colloquial to say that Cowper "*dawdled* away his time," or that Goldsmith's poems are seldom "*all of a piece*." And the word "*floridity*," if not obsolete, is at least obsolescent.

Such a predilection for strong language is excusable in a first work, all the more that it so evidently springs from strength of thought. Taken all in all, this is the best initiatory work on English literature that we have seen.

Wordsworth's Poems for the Young. With Fifty Illustrations by John M'Whirter and John Pettie. London: Strahan & Co., 1863.

This is a charming book for "the young;" but not without great attractions also for "the old." It were strange indeed if old and young, who take equal delight in Nature, should not each find something to delight them in Nature's poet. The two points to be noted in this book are, the selection of poems, and the illustrations. Nearly all the poems which, according to Wordsworth's own classification, are distinguished as "referring to the period of childhood," are included in this volume. One or two of these, however, such as those on the

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"Characteristics of a Child," and on "The Influence of Natural Objects on the Imagination," have been judiciously omitted; for though certainly "referring to the period of childhood," they are by no means suited "for the young." The omission of "Rural Architecture" is more questionable, the humour of it being quite within the grasp of those who could appreciate the other poems in the book. These omissions have been more than supplied by the introduction of four poems from the class entitled "Poems of the Fancy," and one from those "Founded on the Affections."

The illustrations, which are engraved by Dalziel Brothers, are all admirable. The half-dozen figure subjects are by Mr. Pettie, of which the best is that of the "Idle Shepherd Boys," standing on the verge of a precipice, where

> "Into a chasm a mighty block
> Hath fallen and made a bridge of rock."

But the great majority of the woodcuts are landscapes, or "bits" of landscape, by Mr. M'Whirter, which show a strong grasp of nature, as well as much delicate feeling and finish. The frontispiece is a rich and sweet picture of a woody dell, with graceful beeches and dark overhanging rocks, reflected in a quiet glassy pool, the banks of which are mottled by flickering beams that do their best to make "a sunshine in the shady place." The picture, too, of

> . . . "The kitten on the wall
> Sporting with the leaves that fall,"

is fresh and natural; the action of the kitten pirouetting round the dancing leaves, is admirably caught. The smaller blocks, such as those of flowers and strawberries in the poem "Foresight," or those on pp. 6, 36, 39, 65, are exquisite studies of nature in detail. If these are, as we believe, the best "poems for the young" that could be collected from a single author, the illustrations are certainly worthy of the poems.

1. *The First Part of Thomson's Seasons: Spring.* With Notes on the Analysis and Parsing, and a Life of Thomson. By C. P. Mason, B.A. London: Walton & Maberly, 1862.
2. *The First Book of The Excursion. By William Wordsworth: The Wanderer.* With Notes to aid in Grammatical Analysis and in Paraphrasing. By Rev. H. G. Robinson, Canon of York, etc. Edinburgh: James Gordon, 1863.

Each of these books has been prepared for a special purpose; but both will be useful far beyond their immediate design. The former has been prepared for the use of junior candidates in the Oxford local examinations in June, for whom *Thomson's Spring* has been prescribed; the latter, for the use of candidates for a certificate of merit in the Government examination in December. It is one of the chief advantages of these examinations that they are promoting a more critical and

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careful study of English authors, and are calling forth a number of excellent editions of the English classics, of which many teachers will avail themselves who have no connexion with the examinations.

The propriety of selecting *Thomson's Spring* as the basis of grammatical and analytic questions is very doubtful. The pupil, indeed, will encounter difficulties enough; but as these arise chiefly from the looseness of the thought, and the slovenliness of the style, it is questionable whether he will be much benefited by unravelling them. These circumstances, however, rendered an annotated edition all the more necessary, and Mr. Mason has performed his task most thoroughly. His notes are copious (perhaps too copious), minute, and always pointed; while the pupil is in every instance referred for fuller explanations to the relative paragraphs in the editor's *English Grammar and Analysis*.

Canon Robinson's Notes to *The Wanderer* are a model of what such an edition should contain. They are not too numerous,—indeed the poem does not afford much scope for annotation,—they are always satisfactory; while they are expressed with an elegance, and illustrated with a freshness and fulness of reference to parallel passages in standard authors, which mark the critic and the scholar.

We cordially recommend both of these works to teachers of English literature.

1. *The Standard Series of Elementary Reading-Books. Primer, First Standard, Second Standard.* By J. S. Laurie, Editor of the "Graduated Series of Reading-Books." London: Longman, 1863.
2. *Chambers's Narrative Series of Standard Reading-Books. Primer, Book I. Book II.* London: W. & R. Chambers, 1863.

The six graduated standards of the Revised Code were far too suggestive to be lost upon book-makers. Accordingly some half-dozen different "standard series" of reading-books, writing-books, and arithmetics have been announced, or are already in course of publication. Of two of these series, specimens are now before us. The one is the "Standard Series of Elementary Reading-Books," the other is the "Narrative Series of Standard Reading-Books." The former title is logically the more accurate. The series is "standard," not "narrative;" the reading-books may be "narrative," but should hardly claim to be "standard." The slight difference in title, however, may have been designed to prevent the various series, all of which are equally entitled to call themselves "standard," from being confounded,—a point on which the Messrs. Chambers, from the superiority of their books, are entitled to be jealous; and we shall be very glad if so simple a device has prevented a modern "Battle of the Standard."

It is not only in title, however, that the two series are similar. There is a strong family resemblance between them in sundry other points. Each contains seven books, which are very similar in size, price, and general plan. Both editors lay much stress on the interesting nature of the matter. Both editors, also, are school-inspectors:

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in the one case, however, this fact is cautiously reserved; in the other it is prominently advertised.

Mr. J. S. Laurie seems to us to have been far more successful in his admirable "Graduated Series" than in his present hasty and ill-considered scheme. The external appearance of the books is far from prepossessing; and we are surprised that an editor who, in yet *another* series at present under his care, lays so much stress upon the æsthetics of book-making, should have allowed such poor typography or such dingy paper to go forth with his imprimatur. We have further failed to discover any single respect, except their number, and even that is a questionable point, in which they are adapted to the Code. For example, Standard I. of the Code requires the reading of "narrative in monosyllables." But in Mr. J. S. Laurie's "Primer," which is an introduction to Standard I., we have dissyllables in abundance within the first three or four pages. It may be that the Code is itself in error in making the number of syllables the testing point. We think it is; for obviously such dissyllables as *can-not*, *no-thing*, *pret-ty*, are much easier than such monosyllables as *rough*, *though*, *plague*, and *knock*. But Mr. J. S. Laurie is not consistent even with his own requirements. His first principle is "that the beginner should not be embarassed" (spelt with one 'r,' in conformity with the editor's advice—'spelling should be strictly avoided') "with words presenting phonic or orthographic peculiarities." Yet, scattered through the "Primer," we find the following words: *though*, *eye*, *fight*, *hymn*, *know*, *would*, *plough*, *castle*, *knock*, *lamb*, etc.! And in the first page of "Standard I.," we have the monosyllable *rogue*, and, in subsequent pages, words like *straight*, *wretched*, *penknife*, *frightened*, *gain-saying*, and *courtier*. Perhaps it is part of the "look and say" theory that one word is as easy as another.*

The series of the Messrs. Chambers is excellent both in plan and in execution. The books are clearly printed, and are neatly as well as strongly bound. The letters and combinations of letters are introduced gradually. The "Primer" is as easy and as well arranged a book for beginners as we have seen. It is perhaps too easy; and if the "Standard Primer" errs in defying all the restrictions of the "Code," the "Narrative Standard Primer" errs almost as much in observing them too literally. The introduction of easy dissyllables—such as are merely the conjunction of two simple sounds—should have preceded the use of complex consonant sounds, such as wh-, -ple, -rth, etc., as well as of modified vowel sounds. It also seems useless to place merely the letter "q" at so early a stage in the "Primer," when the child is not asked to use it in any word till far on in Standard I.

It seems to us that the projectors of these books have "made the most" of the Code in making their books so numerous. The Code contains six standards; but the most casual reader of it will perceive that it by no means "requires" six reading-books. Standard II. specifies "one of the narratives next in order after monosyllables in an

* See Notice of the later books of this series on p. 99.

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elementary reading-book," pointing unmistakably to one book for the two standards. We cannot see how an inspector could carry out the directions of the Code in a school in which either of these series was used. For, again, Standard v. specifies "a reading-book used in the *first* class," when, according to the series, they would be trained in a book of their own. And, finally, as Standard vi. requires "a paragraph in a newspaper" to be read, the book for that standard should be nothing less than a file of the *Times*. So much for over-adaptiveness.

Nearly the same error meets us in what we cannot but think the catchpenny device, adopted in both series, of introducing written characters amongst the ordinary letterpress. No child can read "script" till he has learnt writing; and no child can learn writing till he is quite familiar with the ordinary letters. We think it will be found ere long that instead of "writing," the early standards of the Code should have specified "pencil-printing" on a slate or paper. At any rate, a line of Greek or Hebrew would be quite as intelligible to a child in Standard i. as small, indistinct, badly-formed "script."

A Simultaneous Method of Teaching to Read, Adapted to Primary Schools. By George White. London: Houlston & Wright, 1862.

Mr. White would have done well to have confined himself strictly to giving an account of the method he holds himself to have discovered. When he is giving account of his own practice, we can follow him; whenever he enters into reasons or comparative statements, he goes astray. His method is strictly a simultaneous method. At whatever stage of their progress they may be, the pupils read together, whether by words, by phrases, or by sentences; the "principal features of the method being—(1.) The perfect simultaneity of the scholar's performances; (2.) The sequential response of the teacher to the simultaneous utterance of the scholars; (3.) The application of the ellipsis." It appears that the children read together in the first instance, and that the teacher reads after them, to correct them. Mr. White shall himself suggest what must occur to most students of his method. "At the first blush it would seem that in requiring the scholars instantly to utter the words of their lesson on seeing them in their books, without being previously told what they are, we had taken for granted their ability to read." The solution is as follows:—"A little further insight into the nature of the case will show that these scholars who have been through the former exercise (?) can, though it be but slowly, combine many of the sounds of the letters, so as to produce words aloud; indeed they can read, though it be but a little, and need only to continue the exercise here required to make satisfactory progress." This explanation leaves us, we fear, in very much the same state of dubiety as "at the first blush" of the matter; and we still ask how have the children learnt to read? As if feeling that there was room for further remark, he adds, "The method of teaching which estimates the scholar as of

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himself unable to learn, if relied on, will soon render him so. The art of teaching is emphatically the art of assisting to learn."

We intended to have suggested to Mr. White that it is a pity he should have written a book to explain how we should teach reading, and contented himself with telling us that he applies *his* method by simultaneous teaching, without ever hinting what the method is which he thus applies; but, as his pupils seem to learn to read without being taught at all, the omission must be held to be a very trifling one.

1. *Solutions of Questions in Arithmetic by First Principles.* By WALTER M'LEOD, F.R.G.S., etc. London: Longmans, 1863.
2. *The Six Standards of Arithmetic: Standard II.* By W. M'LEOD. London: Longmans, 1863.
3. *Examination Questions on Colenso's Algebra, Part I.* By the Rev. JOHN HUNTER, M.A. London: Longmans, 1863.
4. *Elementary Treatise on Land Surveying and Levelling, etc.* By ROBERT THORNTON, Civil and Practical Engineer. With Numerous Illustrations. London: Longmans, 1863.

MR. M'LEOD'S arithmetic by first principles has given us great pleasure, not only because of the neatness and ingenuity of his solutions, but because of the eminent reasonableness and success of the method he adopts and so clearly explains. That method is to work not by rules, but by reasons. The advantage of the method, therefore, is that it requires the pupil in every case to know the *why* of each step in the process, instead of following blindly the directions of an unintelligible rule. Not only is mental culture thus promoted to an extent impossible under the old system; but since the same method is applicable to all arithmetical processes, the pupil's labour is in the end much less than if he had to learn a new rule for every new process. The "solutions" comprise a classified series of examples in proportion (simple and compound), interest, discount, stocks, profit and loss, partnership and proportional parts. We cordially recommend the work to all engaged in, or preparing for, the educational profession. If they adopt this method, the only text-book they need to put into their pupils' hands is a series of well-arranged examples.

The arithmetic for Standard II., by the same author, proceeds upon the same rational method, and with the same laudable determination to make every question in arithmetic a useful mental exercise, as the work above referred to. The first third-part of this little book contains an excellent explanation of the method of teaching notation and numeration to children. The remainder is occupied with well-graduated exercises in addition and subtraction, preceded by useful remarks on the methods of solving the questions. In connexion with the subject of numeration, we would suggest to Mr. M'Leod the substitution of the following table for that which he has given, and which is the one usually adopted:—

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Millions of			Thousands of			Units of		
Hundreds	Tens	Units	Hundreds	Tens	Units	Hundreds	Tens	Units
3	2	1	3	2	1	3	2	1
3d Period.			2d Period.			1st Period.		

The single advantage, but it is an important one, of this table is, that it clearly shows the pupil that the three figures within any one period are to be read in the same way as the three figures in any other —the only difference being in the denomination placed at the top: thus, 321 is read *three hundred and twenty-one* in each period, but the particular periods in which it stands shows whether the meaning is 321 millions, 321 thousands, or 321 units, that is simply 321.

Those teachers who use Colenso's *Algebra*, part I., and who are unable themselves to prepare examination questions thereon, have to thank Mr. Hunter for doing this very thoroughly for them. He has appended some elementary exercises, suggested the re-arrangement of several sets of exercises in Colenso, and added a useful classification of problems in simple and quadratic equations, as well as examples of the application of algebra to geometrical constructions. We confess, however, to a total inability to gather Mr. Hunter's meaning, when he expresses his hope "that the originality of the solutions will be found associated with a power of imparting to the mind of the student a considerable amount of general capability, for the treatment of those numerous problems of a kindred character which occur *promiscuously* in books of algebra." This sentence is really the only insoluble problem in the book.

There are plenty of treatises on land-surveying and engineering, but none sufficiently elementary, and at the same time sufficiently practical, to answer the purpose of instruction. This want is admirably supplied by Mr. Thornton's little work. The professional eminence of the author is a sufficient guarantee for its accuracy: we can answer for its practical utility as a text-book. It contains ample instructions for plotting a survey, and calculating its contents by different methods; for copying, enlarging, and reducing maps, with descriptions of the various instruments used by engineers, and the most improved method of adjusting them. It also contains maritime and subterranean surveying, as well as the construction of railways, harbours, viaducts, and other works. It will be especially valuable to students preparing for India and the Colonies.

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English Composition in Prose and Verse. Based on Grammatical Synthesis. By Walter Scott Dalgleish, M.A. Edinburgh: James Gordon, 1863.

In most competitive examinations for public appointments—and notably for the Civil Service of India—the study of English very properly occupies an important position. "Our Dame's tongue" is vindicating its natural claims to pre-eminence. Hence has arisen the necessity for text-books of a higher and more philosophical character than the feeble manuals that satisfied the meagre requirements of our fathers. The unscientific and unsatisfactory nature of the majority of treatises on composition fully explains and justifies the appearance of another work on this important subject.

Mr. Dalgleish, in the little volume now before us, has combined with singular judgment and skill the experience of a practical teacher with the philosophical treatment and logical precision of an accomplished rhetorician.

The work is divided into two books: the first dealing with prose composition; the second with the elements of verse. Taking a simple *sentence* as a starting-point, the author shows that this may be developed into a *paragraph*, and this again into a finished treatise or *theme;* and the three parts of the first book are occupied with a clear and sensible exposition of the nature and requirements of these three fundamental forms of composition. The first part contains a brief but lucid explanation of the principles of analysis, an admirable chapter on the selection of words, and some useful exercises in paraphrasing. The second part, on the structure of paragraphs, includes a very able chapter on summary or Précis writing. Candidates for the Civil Service appointments will find this invaluable.

With regard to the third part, on the structure of themes, as a matter of speculative opinion, we doubt whether composition can be fairly taught by any artificial rules; but Mr. Dalgleish has contrived, by affording the pupil more freedom of individual action than the ordinary books on this subject allow, to render this section of his subject useful both to the student and the teacher.

The second book deals exclusively with composition in verse, and includes an account of the various metres and stanzas usually found in English poetry. The author has discarded the terms iambic, trochaic, anapæstic, etc., on the ground that they tend to foster erroneous notions of the principles upon which English verse is based. We do not think this apprehension well grounded. When the difference between accent and quantity has been once clearly explained, no confusion can arise, and the advantage of employing well-known recognised terms in teaching is so important, that it should not be lightly thrown aside.

Mr. Dalgleish's book will soon become a favourite manual. We have no hesitation in characterizing it as one of the best of its class.

E. A.

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The Books of David Lindsay and Son, Merchants, London, being an Illustration of Book-keeping by Single Entry, from every-day Business Life. By NICHOLAS DICKSON. London: Longman, Green, Longman, Roberts, and Green, 1863.

THERE is nothing in this book that has not been given before in most of the elementary works on book-keeping. The author suggests single entry as being the more suitable for school purposes; but we believe it to be the opinion of those who have had most experience in teaching this branch of education, that double entry is more easily taught than single, and that the pupil finds the former far more interesting than the latter. The plan here given of naming, at the end of each transaction, the book into which it is to be entered, does not seem to us a good one; for it leaves too little scope for the pupil to exercise his own judgment, and, instead of being a valuable mental training, it becomes "a mere mechanical piece of copy-work and transcription." One good feature of this work, however, is, that the explanations of the nature of each book, and also of the balance-sheet, are very well given, and cannot but prove of great service to the pupil if properly studied by him. In this way it will no doubt be very acceptable in those schools where the teacher has not much time to devote specially to this subject; and to all such we recommend it.

A Pocket Dictionary of the French and English Languages. By LEON CONTANSEAU. London: Longmans, 1863. Pp. 272 and 350.

THIS admirable little work is an abridgment of the author's *Practical French and English Dictionary*, and incorporates, also in an abridged form, the features which have gained for it so high a character. These features are, the omission of unnecessary or rare words, the insertion of new and common words, the insertion of compound words expressive of a single idea, the statement in every case of the preposition by which French verbs and adjectives are followed, the addition in the case of irregular verbs of their leading tenses, and last, and most useful of all, the distinction of the different senses and different uses of each word, with plain directions for the choice of the right word in translating from English into French. The book is very plain and full in its explanations, very clearly printed, and very convenient in size. But it is not merely a good book for its size; it is as good a French dictionary as any learner need possess,—much better than many we could name, three and four times its bulk.

The Musical Student's Manual. By THOMAS MURBY. London: Groombridge & Sons, 1863.

THE author states that the object of this manual is "twofold, viz., to supply the student with full and systematic instruction in the essen-

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tial elements of the theory of music, and at the same time to place in his hands a simple graduated course of exercises for the practice of reading music and singing;" and that he has been induced to undertake it by the consideration that "all existing works on music that lie within the means of the mass of students, are either very meagre in the amount of information they supply, or singularly unmethodical or illogical in arrangement." Without stopping to mention a few manuals which do not seem to us to be fairly liable to this charge, we are glad to be able to admit that the present volume increases their number by one. Mr. Murby has evidently studied with care the subject which he teaches with so much zeal; and he possesses in no small degree the power of connected and lucid explanation.

He has shown much judgment in the selection of his matter, avoiding almost entirely the "philosophy" of music, presenting, as that does, a great number of points which are still *sub judice*. And this is well; for the few references to it which his book contains are just the points in which we hesitate to agree with him. For example, he defines music "as the art of expressing feelings and ideas through the medium of sounds;" if it be so, how does it differ from language? We do not agree in the statement that "it is possible for music to exist without rhythm," nor do we think that Mr. Murby quite agrees with himself on that point. We do not understand his proposal to consider the several forms of the minor scale as simply "modifications of the minor scale:" there are unquestionably several distinct forms of that scale,—besides the two with reference to which his remark is made,—which are in use in the compositions of the great masters. And we think the statement "that the triad, being the original source of the scale, is consequently the source and fountain of all music;" and this other, that the chords on the fourth and fifth of the scale are selected as those which, along with the chord on the tonic, furnish the materials of the diatonic scale, because "next to the octave, these are the simplest intervals,"—do not quite go to the root of the matter. Having referred to these points, however, we feel the more bound to say that throughout the book as a whole, Mr. Murby's explanations are eminently satisfactory and clear.

The author has taken much pains with the arrangement of his book; we had almost said, too much. A simpler arrangement, in which greater reliance should be placed on the natural light and shade of good descriptive statement, and less on the apparatus of the printer, would, we apprehend, be both more attractive and more effective. In the grouping of his matter, he has followed the twofold division of Tonology and Rhythmics. That these are the two great departments of music is true; but it is by no means certain that this division affords the best arrangement of the subject for a school-book. It seems at least to have hampered the author in his treatment of Harmony, which is the least satisfactory part of his book. Be that as it may, it will not be found practicable to defer the teaching of rhythm till the matter of sound has been *exhausted*.

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Having ventured on these suggestions, we beg to assure Mr. Murby that we have made them solely with the view of improving a manual which, as it stands, the musical student will find a very safe and intelligent guide, and that we cordially appreciate his exertions in diffusing musical taste and knowledge in our schools.

In acknowledging receipt of Professor Lorimer's *Inaugural Lecture on the Law of Nature and Nations* (T. & T. Clark), and Professor Nichol's *Inaugural Lecture to the Course of English Language and Literature in the University of Glasgow* (Maclehose), we take the opportunity of congratulating two of our contributors on their elevation to positions of academic influence and dignity, which their papers in *The Museum* have shown how well they are qualified to fill. To Professor Nichol's admirable outline of what an academical course of lectures on the English language and English literature (which lies more directly within our sphere) should be, we shall probably take an early opportunity of returning.

We are very glad to see that Mr. Weisse's *Grammar of the German Language, based on its natural relation to the English, for schools and private study* (Williams & Norgate), has reached a second edition. Having made acquaintance with the work in its earlier form, we are able to state that it has been enriched with a great deal of new and valuable material. The work is now of a higher value, even to the mature student, than school-grammars generally are.

We are also glad to notice the issue of a new edition (the 4th) of Corkran's *History of England in Epochs* (Gordon), much improved in many respects, but chiefly by the addition of a chronological table of contents, which affords an admirable outline of English history distinctly arranged in epochs, in dynasties, and in reigns. The interesting style of this book is one of its best features, and it is much enlivened by occasional passages from the historical plays of Shakspere.

Since our notice of the "Standard" and "Narrative" series of Reading-Books was written, we have received the volumes of the former series for Standards III. IV. V. and VI. We take this opportunity of saying that these later volumes are superior in external appearance to the earlier ones, and that though graduation (which is less important in more advanced books) is still too little regarded, the interesting character of the lessons has been carefully and successfully attended to. We may here also acknowledge receipt of three volumes of *Laurie's Entertaining Library—Robinson Crusoe, Gulliver's Travels*, and *Christmas Tales* (Longman & Co.), in which the same indefatigable editor has appropriated, and, in the matter of type, binding, and illustrations, improved upon, the excellent idea started by Mr. Gordon in his "School and Home Series," surely a standing contradiction to Mr. Laurie's statement that "many similar projects have been started and have failed." We protest, too, in the name of Defoe and Swift, against the editor's assumed right, not only of curtailing, but of "*adapting* the original texts so as to suit his purpose," by simplifying grammatical constructions, and substituting modern for antique words and idioms. Mr. Sandercock's illustrations are remarkably fine.

We have received several works by Mr. W. J. Unwin, the able principal of Homerton College—(1.) The *Homerton College Atlas, Hydrographical, Physical, and Political;* (2.) *Modern Geography, Descriptive, Political, and Physical, Part I., Descriptive;* (3.) *Infant-School Reader:* (Longman & Co.) The *Atlas* is really three sets of the same maps coloured differently, to represent—*first*, river basins, *second*, physical features, *third*, political divisions; and as the colouring is done by the old-fashioned hand-method, it is sometimes clumsy enough. The *Descriptive* part of modern geography, though professing to give only the natural features of the countries of the globe, really presupposes some knowledge of political geography; for, in describing the Thames, for example, it mentions both the counties through which it flows, and the towns, and even villages which it washes. The *Reader*, again, is too complicated in method, for it taxes the "infant" with learning reading and writing at once, when one at a time is quite puzzling enough; and too difficult in matter, for it gives him in the very first section such words as *zephyr, agility, azure, opaque, oblique, mosque*, many of which a child can neither pronounce nor understand.

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Teachers who wish to confine attention to a limited portion of English history at one time, will find the *Outlines of English History*, published by the National Society in parts of 32 pages each, price 2d., very suitable for their purpose. The seven parts already issued reach to the death of Queen Anne. The work is judiciously and methodically arranged. We have received from the same publishers *The Gospel according to St. Matthew*, with Notes by the Rev. W. Benham,—the most complete book of its kind that we have seen; and *Scripture Geography*, by James Hewitt,—the condensed results of the author's researches while lecturing on this subject in the Battersea Training-College.

We are glad to have received a copy of the new edition (the 5th) of *Stammering and Stuttering* (Longmans) by James Hunt, Ph.D. etc., than whom no one is better entitled to an attentive hearing on the subject of impediments in speech. It is an able and interesting book; but it would have been more useful to teachers had the author given some practical details as to his method. And if it be true, as he says, that "the great secret of my practice is in the application, and not in the system itself," he need surely have no fear of suffering at the hands of imitators.

Cottin's *Elizabeth ou Les Exilés de Sibérie*, and Saint Pierre's *Paul et Virginie*, form the new volumes (Nos. IV. and V.) of M. Bertrand's excellent French school classics (Williams & Norgate). Each volume contains the plain text, and a carefully compiled special vocabulary.

We are sorry we cannot recommend the *Home Lesson-Book of Spelling, Tables, Arithmetic, etc., for Junior Classes* (Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.), either as good in itself or as "specially adapted to prepare children for the first three examinations under the Revised Code." Miss Parkhurst's *Questions for Examination on Miss Sewell's Child's History of Rome* are prepared with commendable care; but we have always been accustomed to hold that teaching very cheap which requires the aid of printed questions. We have been much disappointed by Rev. J. B. Owen's *Old Friends, and what Became of them* (Nisbet & Co.)—a book in which bad English and bad taste are almost equally conspicuous. The author tells us, of one of his heroes, that "hard labour, etc., terminated his wretched *memoir*." The Rev. J. B. Owen must have written it. We regret that several volumes of *Poems* by Francis Alexander Mackay (Bell & Daldy) have reached us too late for notice in the present number. We are also compelled to postpone till next number all notice of the *Documens du Concours*, connected with M. Barbière's offer of premiums for essays on the foundation of International Colleges (Dulau & Co.)

XII.—RETROSPECT OF THE QUARTER.

I.—UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Oxford.—Although there is a falling off of eight in the number of members of Convocation this year, there is an increase of 59 members on the books, the total number being 6605. The matriculations of 1862 are exactly the same number as those of the previous year, viz., 433. The increase in M.A. degrees is 12, and in B.A.'s, 2.

In a Convocation held January 29, a statute was passed, the object of which is to remedy the irregular and limited encouragement hitherto given to the study of Hebrew by the Kennicott Scholarship. An election to the Scholarship will now take place annually instead of triennially, and the scholarship is thrown open to bachelors of arts during three years. Residence will be required during the year of tenure. The value of the scholarship is about £144.

A form of statute was passed removing a restriction by which White's Professor of Moral Philosophy has hitherto been prevented from holding a cure of souls.

A form of statute was next promulgated to allow to passmen the substitution of some standard work on political economy, together with the history of British India, for the *minimum* of English law and modern history hitherto required.

A form of statute was then promul-

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gated, by which it is proposed to empower the Vice-Chancellor and Proctors, together with the Public Examiners and Moderators, to name each year the Greek and Latin authors to be offered by passmen at the first public examination, and in the school of *Literæ Humaniores*.

Cambridge.—The number of wranglers this year is 33, against 32 in 1862; of senior optimes, 22, against 30 in 1862; and of junior optimes, 45, against 23 in 1862; making a total of 100, against 85 in 1862. It will be observed, however, that the increase arises from the large augmentation in the class of junior optimes.

The subject for the Chancellor's gold medal for the encouragement of English Poetry for the year 1863 is:—

"Hæc erat illa fames; hæc nos suprema manebat,
Exitii positura modum."

The exercises not to exceed 200 lines in length. The subject for the Marquis Camden's gold medal for the best exercises in Latin hexameter verse is "India pacificata," not to exceed 100 lines in length. The Members' prizes for Bachelors, for the best prose Latin composition. Subject.—"Utrum recte judicaverit Gibbon omnium felicissimum humano generi sæculum contigisse illud quod a mortuo Domitiano usque ad regnantem Commodum durabat." For the Undergraduates. Subject.—"Quosnam intra fines cura cultusque corporis in gente aliqua consistere debeant ut ibidem animi robur atque magnitudo floreant." For the Greek verse, elegiac metre. Subject.—"Ἀρὴς ἐμφύλιος." For Latin ode, Alcaic metre. Subject.—"Miltoni Senectus." For Greek epigram. Subject.—"Ἄμ' ἕπος ἄμ' ἔργον," For Latin epigram—"In se totus teres atque rotundus." The Person Prize. Subject.—Shakspeare's *Twelfth Night*, Act V., Scene 1—"My Lord would speak; my duty hushes me," to the words, "As great as that thou fearest." The measure to be tragicum iambicum trimetrum acatalecticum.

The Board of Legal Studies have published the following list of subjects for candidates for honours in the examination for the degree of B.L. in 1864:—

I. Roman Law.—For translation: "Commentaries of Gaius," "Institutes of Justinian," "Digest," book 41, titles 1 and 3 (De acquirendo rerum Dominio et de Usucapiore et Usurpatione), "Cicero pro Plancio." The paper of questions will be set from "Ancient Law," by Dr. Maine, and "Roman Law," by Lord Mackenzie.

II. English Law.—"Blackstone, vols. 3 and 4 (Kerr's edition); Joshua Williams's "Law of Real Property."

III. English History.—From the reign of Henry VII. to that of James I., both inclusive, with special reference to Hallam's "Constitutional History" and the Statute Book.

IV. International Law.—Oke Manning's "Law of Nations;" the Treaty of Ryswick.

The subject for the Hulsean Prize for the present year is "The relations and mutual influence of Christianity and civilisation." The premium awarded will be about £80.

Local Examinations.—The special subjects for the local examinations in December next are—1. For Junior Students:—Second Book of Kings, Ezra, Nehemiah, St. Mark; English History, from James I. to the death of William III.; Sallust, *Bell. Cat.*; Virgil, *Æn.* 9; Xenophon, *Anab.* 3; Homer, *Iliad*, 16; Molière, *L'Avare.* 2. For the Senior Students:—Old Testament History, from the accession of Saul to the rebuilding of the temple, St. Mark, and Acts i. to xiv.; English History, from James I. to the death of Anne; Milton, *Paradise Lost*, 1 and 2; Livy, 1; Virgil, *Georgics*, 1; Demosthenes, *Olynthiacs*; Æschylus, *Persæ*; Molière, *Les Femmes Savantes*; Mignet, *History of Revolution.*

The Board of Legal Studies have announced the following subjects for the examination for the Chancellor's Medal for Legal Studies, 1864:—

I. Roman Law and Jurisprudence.—Studies in Roman Law by Lord Mackenzie; Austin on Jurisprudence.

II. English Law.—Story on Bailments; Broom's Commentaries on English Law, book 4.

III. English History.—(*a*) From the reign of Charles I. to the abdication of James II., with special reference to Hallam and the Statute Book; (*b*) State Trials—the seven Bishops.

IV. International Law.—Kent's Commentaries, vol. i. part 1.

There will be an examination on Tuesday, October 13, 1863, of students who intend to commence residence, when (provided fit candidates present themselves) the following scholarships

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will be filled up:—One for Classics and Mathematics combined, value £80 per annum; one for Classics only, value £40 per annum; two for Mathematics only, value £40 per annum; two for Natural Science, value £40 per annum; one or more Johnson Exhibitions, value £32 per annum.

The subject for the Burney Prize in the present year is, "To show that the exercise of the active virtues, such as courage and patriotism, is entirely consistent with the spirit of the Gospel, and to account for those virtues not being prominently put forward in the teaching of the New Testament."

There will be an election of scholars at St. Peter's College on Tuesday, June 2. Two scholarships, each of the value of £60 per annum, and tenable until the scholars shall have taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts, will be thrown open for competition among those candidates who intend to commence their residence in October next.

The Rev. Francis Morse, of St. John's College, has been appointed Hulsean Lecturer for the year ensuing.

Edinburgh.—At a meeting held on January 3, a committee, consisting of several noblemen and gentlemen, with some of the Professors, was formed, to consider the best mode of establishing one or more College Halls. A company (with limited liability) has since been formed for this purpose: Capital £15,000, in six hundred shares, one hundred and sixty of which have been subscribed for.

Mr. James Mackenzie has made over the sum of £3000 to the Commissioners for the foundation of a fellowship or scholarship in the University. The Commissioners have ordained that the scholarship is to be in the gift of the Senatus Academicus; candidates are to be examined in Classical and English literature. The scholarship is to be open only to Graduates in Arts, of not more than three years' standing, and to be tenable for only four years. It cannot be held along with any other scholarship, fellowship, or bursary of any Scottish University.

St. Andrews.—On Friday, January 16th, Mr. Stirling of Keir delivered his inaugural address on his installation as Rector of the University.

Candidates for bursaries in connexion with the United College of St. Salvator and St. Leonard's are henceforth to be examined in English and Arithmetic, as well as in Latin.

Mr. Stirling of Keir, M.P., the Rector, has appointed J. Whyte Melville, Esq., his assessor in the University Court.

II.—EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Science and Art Department.—The Lords of the Committee of Privy Council on Education have amended the Minutes of 1856-1857 in this department as follows:—

1. For every child taught drawing in a school of art, who shall "pass" in one or more exercises of the 1st grade, executed in the presence of an inspector of this department, a payment of 3s. will be made.

(*a.*) If the teacher of a school for the poor, in which such child is taught, holds a certificate of competency to teach drawing, and teaches drawing to all children of his school who learn writing, the managers of the school shall receive 2s. in respect of such child; and the master of the school of art in which such child is examined and received shall receive 1s., provided he has superintended the instruction.

(*b.*) If the teacher of a school for the poor does not hold a certificate of competency to teach drawing, but assists in teaching drawing to all children of his school who learn writing, the managers of the school shall receive 1s. in respect of such child; and the master of the school of art who has taught or superintended the instruction of the child shall receive 2s.

(*c.*) Each child examined who passes at the mark "excellent" shall receive a prize, or reward of drawing materials.

(*d.*) In each year a limited number of bronze medals shall be awarded among the teachers of schools for the poor whose pupils have been most successful in the annual examinations.

2. For every pupil-teacher or apprentice who shall pass in any one or more of the exercises of the 2d grade, a payment of 20s. will be made.

(*a.*) This payment will be made to the managers of the school in which the pupil-teacher or apprentice is engaged, provided that the teacher holds a certificate of competency to teach drawing, and that the pupil-teacher or apprentice

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has, during the preceding year, been wholly instructed by him.

(*b.*) Or, the payment will be made to the master of a school of art, provided the pupil-teacher has been, during four months of the preceding year, under his instruction in a school of art, or elsewhere, at a reduced rate of fees.

(*c.*) Every pupil-teacher who passes at the mark "excellent," in one or more exercises of the 2d grade, shall receive a reward of instruments, books, or drawing materials, of the value of 10s.

2. Masters of schools of art, who for the present receive *direct* payments on their certificates, or other *fixed* stipends from the Department, shall be paid only on those children whose papers are marked "good;" but the managers will receive payment on children who "pass."

4. The above-mentioned payments will be made only in respect of children of schools for the poor; and all payments to managers of schools will be made through the school of art with which such schools are locally connected.

The Revised Code—Grouping of Classes for Examination.—Mr. J. C. James, of the St. John's National Schools, Worcester, writes to the Committee of Council:—

"The schools are situated in a district partly manufacturing and partly agricultural, and contain, in consequence, besides the children of agricultural labourers, whose intelligence is below the average, many children whose attainments as compared with their age are far in advance of these. The schools cannot be maintained in their present efficiency without the fullest grant obtainable from their Lordships. Under these circumstances, the managers wish to know what they are to do with the intelligent children who are likely to remain several years in the schools. Are they to place them at once in Standard VI., in which case they will, if they understand the new Code rightly, receive one grant for each (it being, as it seems to them, impossible to present any child a second time for examination in the same standard, even though it be the highest); or are they justified in presenting them (*i.e.*, will they escape the imputation of "packing," if they present them?) in a standard lower than their attainments warrant, in order that in the successive examinations the managers may obtain by their means that amount of remuneration to which their care of them seems to entitle them?"

Mr. Lingen replies,—"My Lords would not consider that a school was unfairly arranged for examination in which—1. The lowest class of children above seven years of age was presented under Standard I., and a higher class under each higher standard. 2. In which no child was displaced in order to avoid passing under Standard VI. prematurely, further than to be presented under the first standard in his seventh year, under the second in his eighth, and so on. My Lords do not think, that with a proper strictness of examination, the children contemplated in Article 4 will often be able to pass Standard VI., and certainly not to pass it well and without fault before the year in which they leave school. But if the case occurs, such children need not be kept back in their studies because they are not required to pass to the full extent of them."

Mr. Walter's Resolutions.—Mr. Walter, M.P. for Berkshire, gave notice of his intention to move the following resolutions in the House of Commons on March 20:—"1. That it is the opinion of this House that the sums annually voted by Parliament for educational purposes ought to be made applicable to all the poorer schools throughout the country (not being private schools, or carried on for profit) in which the attendance and examination of the children exhibit the results required under the Revised Code by her Majesty's Inspectors of schools. 2. That to require the employment of certificated teachers, or of pupil-teachers, by school-managers, as an indispensable condition of their participation in the capitation-grant, is inexpedient and unjust to the managers of such schools." See *Note*, p. 115.

Adult Education and Evening Schools.—A metropolitan association, as noticed in our last number, has been formed for promoting the education of adults in connexion with the Society of Arts. Among the vice-presidents and the committee of management are noblemen and gentlemen well qualified to carry out the objects proposed. From the circular issued by the Association, we select the following passages:—

"The scheme of examinations has

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been warmly welcomed by the working classes wherever it has been brought within their reach. The number of candidates presenting themselves has steadily increased year by year; and in 1862 the examinations were held by 81 local boards, 2 of which were in Ireland, 6 in Scotland, and 73 in England. The prizes and certificates which the Society awards have a recognised value among the employers of labour, and have given a stimulus to many thousands of working men in their efforts for self-improvement; but from London and the neighbourhood the number of candidates has hitherto been disproportionately small. It is a primary object of the Metropolitan Association to bring this scheme under the notice of the working classes of London, and to make its advantages better known and estimated among them. The committee hope to accomplish this end—(1.) By encouraging the establishment of evening schools and institutions where they are needed, and by promoting the efficiency of those which already exist. (2.) By holding public meetings for the explanation of the system of examinations. (3.) By establishing in every district of the Metropolis local boards, or sub-committees, through whose agency the various examinations may be brought within the reach of the working men, who cannot be expected to seek them at a distance. (4.) By offering special prizes to those candidates of either sex who, having presented themselves from schools or institutes affiliated to the Association, shall be successful at the elementary examinations."

Army Schoolmasters.—The amended code of regulations, giving the rank of commissioned officers to army schoolmasters, has been promulgated from the Horse Guards by the direction of the Duke of Cambridge. In future there will be two grades of army schoolmasters,—superintending schoolmasters and schoolmasters, the members of both of which grades will be in every respect subject to the Mutiny Act, the Articles of War, and the general regulations and orders for the army. Superintending schoolmasters will receive commissions as officers, but the lower grade of army schoolmasters will rank as non-commissioned officers next below serjeants-major. The pay of schoolmasters will in future be as follows:—First appointment as schoolmaster, 3s. per diem; after two years' service, 3s. 6d.; after four years' service, 4s.; after eight ditto, 5s.; after ten ditto, 5s. 6d. The above periodical increase of pay will depend upon the conduct and ability of the schoolmaster. After twenty-one years' service schoolmasters will be entitled to a pension not exceeding 3s. per day. Schoolmasters will be provided with uniforms, quarter, furniture, and fuel at the public expense. Promotion to the rank of superintending schoolmaster will be conferred by the Field-Marshal Commanding-in-Chief, on the recommendation of the Council of Military Education, in consideration of merit and service. The pay of a superintending schoolmaster will be 7s. 6d. per diem, the periodical increase of pay and the amount of retiring allowance being now under consideration.

Lectures to the Officers and Men, Royal Engineers.—The first of the second course of lectures arranged by the War Department to be delivered to the officers and men of the Royal Engineers, at the Royal Engineer Establishment, Chatham, was given on the evening of Feb. 3, by Mr. J. Anderson, on "The Mechanical Properties of Materials," in the lecture-theatre recently constructed.

Competitive Examinations.—The following memorandum with reference to commissions in the line was issued from the Horse Guards on Tuesday, January 13,—that the half-yearly competitive examinations for admission to the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, or the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, will not, as heretofore, entitle successful competitors to commissions in the line.

Royal Military Academy.—The new gymnasium erected at the rear of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, is pronounced one of the most perfect of its kind. The principal portion of the building is cruciform. It stands on an elevation, the lower floor being appropriated as smoking and lounging rooms, American bowling-alleys, etc., which are fitted up with great taste and convenience under the superintendence of Mr. Jones, R.E. They are well ventilated on Dr. Arnott's principle, and heated throughout with Deane's patent gas stoves.

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Dulwich College.—On Monday, the 23d February, a deputation from the parishes of St. Saviour, Southwark; St. Luke's; St. Botolph; and St. Giles, Camberwell; waited on His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, in reference to the alleged mismanagement of the Dulwich College Charity.

A memorial was presented, which set forth that a large portion of the receipts were funded, instead of being devoted to the eleemosynary branch of the charity; that no provision was made for the inmates of the almshouses in the respective parishes; that adequate provision was not made for the scholars in the Lower School, and that the number of foundation scholars was reduced even below what was specified by the founder; that the Upper School worked injuriously, so that it was not possible to have exhibitions; and that the general management was extravagant. The prayer of the memorial was that His Grace would hold a visitation, so that the memorialists might have an opportunity of proving their allegations.

His Grace said that he would consider the matter, but of course he must be guided by legal advice.

The Roman Catholic Bishop of Galway has been denouncing the Model School of the National Board, lately established in that town. He spared it till he had provided schools of his own for the middle classes, "established by episcopal authority." These rival schools were opened on the 12th instant, "under the patronage of the Most Rev. Dr. M'Evilly, Lord Bishop of Galway." A pastoral was read in all the chapels but one, the priest of which declined to read it, commanding the parents to withdraw their children from the National Model School, and send them to those which their Bishop had prepared for their reception. This pastoral had very little effect upon the parents, who said among themselves that when they had no schools in which their children could get a superior education, their clergy did not trouble themselves about the matter, and they could not see why they should be so peremptorily interfered with now in the secular education of their children.

Employment of Women.—The first annual meeting of the "Society for the Employment of Educated Women," which it may be remembered originated at the Dublin meeting of the Social Science Association, was held on 3d February. Lord Talbot de Malahide presided, and addresses were delivered by Dean Graves, Sir Robert Kane, Sir Thomas Deane, and Professors Houston and Shaw. The report showed that the year's income had been £498, and the expenditure £495. For this outlay 209 women had received instruction in various industrial pursuits suited to their sex and station, and two had been assisted to emigrate. Many were unable to pay even the small fees charged, and 47 were admitted free. Seven training classes are in operation. The total number who had obtained employment out of the classes up to the 29th of September amounted to 86, of whom 17 are engaged in occupations not taught in the classes, and 5 were not members of any class. 146 had attended long enough to acquire some proficiency; viz., sewing-machine, 65; commercial, 42; lithography, 4; telegraph, 14; law-copying, 15; engraving, 6.

National Education in Ireland.—The Report of the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland gives the following results:—

For year .	1860.	1861.
Schools in operation, . .	5,632	5,830
Total number of pupils on rolls, . . .	804,000	803,364
Average daily attendance, .	262,823	284,726
Average number for year on rolls, ...	510,638	531,014

We thus observe an increase of 198 in the number of schools in operation in 1861 as compared with 1860; also an increase on the average daily attendance of 21,903, and on the average number on rolls of 20,376; but on the total number of pupils on the rolls there is a decrease of 636. It is stated in the report that considering that four-fifths of the entire population are Roman Catholics and only about one-fifth Protestants, the number of National School children from both elements is as fair as can be expected.

Dublin Masonic Female Orphan School.—On the 27th January the Masonic Female Orphan School held their anniversary meeting in the Rotunda. From the annual report it appeared that the total receipts for 1862 amounted to £1454, 16s. Thirty-five girls are at present in the school, and, but for the

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state of the finances, forty could be admitted.

Perth — Salaries to Public School Teachers.—At the monthly meeting of the Perth Town-Council, held on February 2, the report of the Education Committee, "that the Council are not legally bound to pay the salaries of public school teachers, and also that it is illegal to do so," was, after a long discussion agreed to by a majority of 17 to 6.

The Morgan Hospital, Dundee.—John Morgan, Esq., of Dundee, died in 1850, leaving a fortune of about £100,000. Several parties claimed to be the heirs of the deceased, but the Town of Dundee put in their claim for the erection, out of the fund, of an hospital for boys, on the ground of certain holograph writings of the deceased, in which the framework of such an hospital was laid forth. In 1858, the House of Lords pronounced these writings a true testament, and the case was therefore handed over to the Court of Session to give effect to the will. The scheme approved of by the Court sanctioned that a sum of £79,138 should be invested for the establishment, endowment, and maintenance of the "Morgan Hospital." The Morgan Hospital is to provide education, lodging, and boarding, etc., for 100 boys, sons of tradesmen, whose parents require assistance to enable them to educate their families, or who are orphans destitute of such assistance. The trustees appointed were the Provost of Dundee, the Sheriff of Forfarshire, one of his Substitutes, the Dean of Guild of Dundee, and the Convener of the nine incorporated Trades of Dundee. Messrs. Peddie and Kinnear were appointed the architects. Contracts have now been entered into for the erection of the building, which will be French Gothic in character. The total cost will be about £15,000.

The Fettes College, Edinburgh.—The excavations on the site of this proposed institution (endowed by Sir William Fettes of Comely Bank and Redcastle) have already been commenced. The designs of the building, to be executed in the early French style, have been prepared by Mr. David Bryce. Exhibitions of the annual value of £60, and scholarships of the annual value of £100, in connexion with the University of Edinburgh, will be open for competition to the members of the Fettes College.

Society for the Education of Imbecile Children in Scotland.—The second annual meeting of this society was held on February 3. From the secretary's report, which was read, it appears that Mr. A. J. Fitch has been appointed assistant-secretary and treasurer, with a view to disseminating information regarding the object of the Society. An Act, which was passed in Parliament last Session, "To make further Provision respecting Lunacy in Scotland," contained a provision, by which it is made lawful for the Board to grant licenses to any charitable institution established for the training of imbecile children. Though not required to take out a license, the committee think it still advisable to do so. Auxiliary associations have been formed in Dundee, Greenock, and Peeblesshire. The Rev. Norman Macleod proposed the adoption of the report, which was unanimously adopted.

Glasgow Industrial and Reformatory School.—The society held their annual meeting on Thursday, February 12—the Lord Provost in the chair. From the report for the past year it appears that 133 boys and 76 girls were on the industrial roll, and 74 boys and 19 girls on the reformatory roll on 1st January 1862. The total number in school at the close of the year, in both departments, was 239.

Edinburgh Gaelic School Society.—The friends of the Gaelic School Society held their annual meeting on the 25th of February. Mr. Beith, W.S., read the annual report, from which it appeared, that during the past year the Society have had 15 schools in Lewis, 3 in Harris, 2 in North Uist, 1 in Benbecula, 9 in Skye, 2 in Islay, 2 in Inverness, 1 in Sutherland, and 7 on the mainland of Ross-shire.

Edinburgh Caithness Association.—This Association held its twenty-fifth annual meeting on Friday, January 30, Donald Horne, Esq., W.S., in the chair. The committee reported that successful examinations had been conducted at Wick and Thurso. It was also intimated that at the end of the present session of the University, the Associa-

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tion's bursary of £10 a year, tenable for four years, would be open for competition.

Female Education in India.—The distribution of prizes and scholarships to the girls attending the schools of the Students' Literary and Scientific Society, Bombay, took place on the 13th December last. Sir Bartle Frere occupied the chair. The report of the Society contained interesting information with regard to female education in India. It affirmed that prejudices against the European system still linger in native society in India. The chairman, in addressing the assemblage, noticed the contrast which this meeting presented, when he saw around him the children of the wealthiest Hindu gentlemen in Bombay, to that which he had seen twenty-eight years ago, when the first school for females of the upper classes met in secret in a ruinous old building in Poonah. Lady Frere distributed the scholarships and prizes, etc.

Christian Education in India.—The annual meeting of the friends of the Christian Vernacular Education Society of India was held in Edinburgh on the 24th February. The secretary, Mr. Gordon, gave an account of the operations of the Society. In the course of his report he stated that 69,611 children were, in 1861, attending the mission-schools, showing a decrease from 1853 of 26,566 scholars. The training institutions of Madura have been opened with thirty-two Christian native teachers, eleven of these being from the London Missionary Society. Another training institution was to be established in the Punjab. Twenty-four elementary vernacular schools had been opened in Bengal, and the income of the Society had been increased considerably during the past year.

Calcutta University.—It is a remarkable fact that so many candidates should have presented themselves at the undergraduate and "little-go" examinations of the Calcutta University as 1334, of ages varying from 16 to 20. Of these, only 71 are Christians, and 46 Mohammedans. The Hindus show a thirst for English, with a view to service under Government or in English offices, which in time may be felt for knowledge for its own sake. Nearly half of the candidates are from schools not established by Government—a most gratifying fact, pointing to the time when the grant-in-aid policy of Sir C. Wood's admirable education despatch shall be carried out in all its integrity, and the State cease to be itself a schoolmaster. The candidates are spread over an area extending from Lahore and Gowhatty, in the north-west and north-east, to Colombo in the far south. All must pass in English, and it is curious to observe the second language which each professes at his option. One solitary man goes up in Arabic, 3 in Hindee, 6 in Persian, 11 in Oorya (the language of Orissa), only 30 in Sanscrit, 51 in Latin, not one in Greek, 99 in Hindustani, and all the rest in Bengali.

Victoria Medical School.—The first important step towards establishing a medical school in Victoria has been taken in the foundation of a lectureship of medicine at the Melbourne University.

III.—PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

College of Preceptors.—The half-yearly general meeting was held on January 10th, Dr. W. B. Hodgson in the chair.

The Dean's report showed, that at the pupils' examination in November, the London candidates amounted to 164; the country candidates to 154; total, 318. Of the London pupils, 98, or 70 per cent., obtained certificates; of those examined in the country, 121, or 78 per cent. passed.

But the London candidates obtained higher marks than those in the country, and a larger number of honour and special certificates. The Dean remarks, that if the principals of schools would take care to send up only those who they have reason to believe will succeed, the proportion of successful candidates would be increased. He assures the members of the College, that examiners who are masters of schools never examine their own pupils.

The number of teachers examined at Christmas was 12, of whom 5 were ladies.

At a meeting of the Council on the 14th February, the report of the Examination Committee, in reference to an application of the Board of Managers of the London Orphan Asylum respecting

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the periodical examination of their schools by the College, was received and adopted.

It was resolved that the book of Genesis and the Gospel of St. Matthew should be the portions of Scripture for the pupils' examinations in the year 1864; and that the next examination for the College diplomas should commence on Tuesday, June 23.

By order of the judges, the first class certificates of the College of Preceptors are in future to be recognised by the Incorporated Law Society, as exempting their holders from the preliminary examinations, in the same way as those given in the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations.

At the evening meeting in January, Mr. Herschel delivered a lecture on "The Study of Astronomy," as illustrated by the planisphere and diagrams of Chevalier Villa; and at that in February, Mr. W. Hughes, F.R.G.S., read a paper on "The Study of Geography," as illustrated by the same interesting apparatus.

The National Society.—The following important resolution is to be moved by Messrs. Meyow and Denison, at the annual meeting of the National Society:—"That a school, the founder or founders of which make provision in the trust-deed that it shall be for ever for children all of whom are to be taught and instructed in the Catechism of the Established Church, shall not, on that account, be excluded from union with 'The National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church.'" The Committee of the National Society declares it "incompatible with union" to found a school in which every child is to be taught the Church Catechism; hence the notice of the above resolution at the annual meeting.

The Associated Body of Church Schoolmasters.—The tenth annual meeting of "The General Associated Body of the Church Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses in England and Wales," was held at Oxford on the 30th and 31st December 1862. After divine service in the chapel of Exeter College, the members and friends visited the Bodleian Library and Picture Gallery, which were specially opened for the benefit of the members,—a privilege which has not been accorded to any association for a quarter of a century.

At two o'clock, a public meeting was held in the hall of Exeter College,—the President, Mr. Williams, in the chair. In addition to the members, a considerable number of clerical and other influential visitors were present.

The President opened the proceedings by delivering a short address. He referred particularly to the Revised Code, and to the statements made by Mr. Lowe respecting teachers. Mr. Lowe had thrown out aspersions in his several speeches, which he did not hesitate to stigmatize as unfounded and unjust—against both inspectors and teachers. After briefly referring to night-schools and the re-organization of the body, as matters requiring their most patient and attentive consideration, the President concluded, by expressing, in the highest terms of eulogy, his sense of the obligations under which the body was placed to its indefatigable secretary (Mr. Graves), by the able manner in which he had discharged the duties of his office.

A paper was read by Mr. Hobby on "Night Schools;" and the following resolution was moved by Mr. Dee, and carried by a large majority,—"That, in the opinion of this meeting, it is desirable to apply to Parliament for a Scholastic Registration Act, analogous to the Medical Registration Act of 1858."

On Wednesday, the following business was transacted: Mr. Macintosh delivered a brief address on the effects of the Lancashire distress on the schools of the suffering districts; Mr. Williams of Windsor exhibited specimens of desks, of inkstands, etc., of his own manufacture, and made some observations on school furniture; Mr. Bulman proposed, and Mr. Powell seconded this resolution, which was agreed to: "That, by subscribing a guinea per annum, the associated body shall become a corporate member of the Social Science Association;" and Messrs. Studdle and Hare advocated the claims of the Church Schoolmasters' Benevolent Institution. Several votes of thanks were then passed; and the proceedings were brought to a close by the annual dinner, which was held at the Star Hotel, under the presidency of the Rev. Dr. Scott, Master of Balliol College.

Church Schoolmasters' and Schoolmistresses' Benevolent Institution.—The annual meeting of this valuable institu-

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tion took place on the 3d January, at St. Martin's Schools, Charing Cross. From the report presented to the Committee we find that the institution continues to advance both in numbers and in funds. The increase in the number of applicants, and the sums voted to distressed teachers during the year 1862, give evidence of the urgent necessity for such an institution. The only regret is, that it is not better supported. We should be glad to see the names of *thousands* enrolled as annual subscribers to an institution whose aim is to relieve those who, from sickness, or some other cause, are unable to follow their usual avocations. Copies of the report, and any information respecting the Society, will be gladly supplied on application to Mr. George W. Perry, St. Michael's Schools, Pimlico, or Mr. Joseph Phillips, St. James's School, Bermondsey, the hon. secretaries.

East Kent Association.—A meeting of this association was held at Christ Church School, Ramsgate, the 10th January. Mr. Mitchell occupied the chair. The afternoon was devoted to a discussion on the effect of the Revised Code upon night and infant schools.

At the meeting, held at St. John's Schools, in February, the subject discussed was the following: "Is it advisable, under the Revised Code, to teach geography and history in the schools in our district?"

Manchester Church Teachers' Association.—The monthly meeting of the members of this Association was held on February 7th, at the Rooms of the Young Men's Christian Association, Manchester. Messrs. Warriner and Stott, the delegates to the annual meeting of the "Associated Body," held at Oxford in December, gave a lengthened and interesting report of the proceedings of the Associated Body.

A paper was then read by Mr. Goodwin of St. Stephen's Schools, Carlton-upon-Medlock, on the "Circassian Delegates," which elicited favourable criticisms.

Surrey Church Schoolmasters' Association.—The monthly meeting of the members of this Association was held on the 7th February at St. Mary's School, Guildford. An unusual number of members and friends were present to hear Mrs. Mary Ballard, Rippingale, read her prize essay, entitled "The Providence of God as displayed in human affairs."

Liverpool Church Teachers' Association.—The monthly meeting of this Association took place on the 14th February in St. Augustine's Schools, when a paper was read by Mr. Kent on "Campbell the Poet." A discussion followed the reading of this paper. Two new members were admitted.

Educational Institute of Scotland.—The subject of the proposed Scholastic Registration Act having been brought before the Institute by a circular of the College of Preceptors, the general committee, through a sub-committee, agreed to recommend the following classes of teachers as entitled to be registered, viz.:—

"All teachers holding University degrees; all teachers holding diplomas or certificates from the Educational Institute of Scotland, or the College of Preceptors; all teachers holding Government certificates; all masters of endowed, proprietary, and subscription schools; all teachers of public institutions, sessional schools, and Free Church schools; all teachers of adventure schools, provided that no teacher of any such adventure school shall be admissible who has not taught with success for *seven* years, and whose average attendance of pupils has not been less than *twenty*;—the period for such registration to be limited to four years after the passing of the Act."

The subject was discussed at the last monthly meeting of the Edinburgh local Association, and was remitted to a committee to consider and report. At the same meeting, a paper on "The Influence of School Prizes on Education" was read by Mr. Lambie, in which he endeavoured to show "how much harm they did, how little good they accomplished, and how easily they could be dispensed with."

The Glasgow branch of this Institute held a meeting on Saturday, January 17th, when Professor Blackie delivered a lecture on "The Pronunciation of the Latin and Greek Languages," in which he maintained,—*1st*, That Scotch linguists ought to stand by their old pronunciation of Latin and Greek,

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as being the most reasonable, scientific, and historically accredited one; 2*d*, That the Scotch method of pronunciation was far superior to the English method. The Professor went on further to state, that the Scotch ought to adopt some improvements in their pronunciation of the Latin and Greek, and having taken the initiative, to try and persuade the English to follow their example. He was also much in favour of modern Greek, as a knowledge of it was of great advantage to students of Theology, as being the Greek of the Old and New Testaments ripened and come to seed, and to students generally as a means of keeping up a living connexion with the Greek people.

At the usual quarterly meeting of the Kirkcaldy local Association, the communication from the College of Preceptors regarding the registration of teachers, above referred to, was discussed, and the secretary was instructed to intimate to the secretary of the Institute, that the Association was favourable to the scheme; the meeting being of opinion that all teachers now in the exercise of their profession should be registered on furnishing suitable evidence of success in teaching. Mr. Campbell, East Wemyss, then drew the attention of the meeting to the many inconsistencies in the pronunciation of foreign names. Mr. Walker of Dysart opened a discussion on the teaching of reading in its more advanced stages.

Scottish Central Association of Schoolmasters.—A stated quarterly meeting of this Association was held at Stirling on Saturday the 10th January last, Mr. Macturk, Tillicoultry, the preses, in the chair. About thirty members were present, and six new members admitted. An able and practical paper on "Irregular School Attendance" was read by Mr. MacGregor, Tullibody, who considered the subject under the three heads of (1.) the causes; (2.) the consequences; and (3.) the cure of irregularity. In the discussion that followed, a considerable number of practical suggestions were thrown out for the cure of the evil, in addition to those advanced by the essayist. A committee was thereafter appointed to draw up a circular bearing upon the subject, to be printed and circulated among the parents, with a view to secure their co-operation with the teacher in remedying the evils complained of. Mr. Lawson, Dunblane, then read a well-considered paper on "The Duty of the Legislature towards Teachers," in which he cogently argued for (1.) a reasonable security in his office to the teacher; (2.) a comfortable retiring allowance; (3.) an independent position and self-government; and (4.) a fair remuneration for his work. An interesting discussion likewise followed the reading of this paper; and cordial thanks were unanimously passed to Mr. MacGregor and Mr. Lawson for their excellent papers.

IV. APPOINTMENTS.

The Rev. B. C. Caffin, M.A.:—Second Master, Durham School.

The Rev. James Dudley Cargill, M.A.:—Head-Master, Collegiate Grammar School, Southwell.

The Rev. Samuel Cheetham, M.A.:—Professor of Pastoral Theology, King's College, London.

The Rev. J. G. Davie:—Head-Master, Market Bosworth Grammar School.

The Rev. E. Dowland:—Master, Salisbury Cathedral School.

Rev. W. P. Dickson:—Professor of Biblical Criticism, University of Glasgow.

Mr. Durell:—Senior Mathematical Master, Radley College.

Dr. Hare:—Professor of Clinical Medicine, University College Hospital, London.

The Rev. Edward Hayes, M.A.:—Professor of Exegesis of the New Testament, King's College, London.

Mr. Thomas F. Jamieson, Ellon:—Professor of Agriculture in the University of Aberdeen.

The Rev. Charles Alfred Jones, M.A.:—Senior Mathematical Master in Westminster School.

Mr. Walter Lacy:—Professor of Elocution at the Royal Academy of Music.

Rev. George M'Arthur, A.M.:—Senior Mathematical Master, Gymnasium, Old Aberdeen.

The Rev. J. R. Major:—Head-Master of Carmarthen Grammar School.

The Rev. George Ridding, M.A.:—Second Master of Winchester College.

The Rev. J. Ridgway:—Principal, Oxford Diocesan College, Culham.

Mr. Sydney Ringer:—Professor of Materia Medica, University College Hospital, London.

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Mr. George R. Samuel, M.A. Aber., B.A., Lond.:—Head Classical Master, The Grange House School, Edinburgh.

The Rev. J. M. Tandy:—Head-Master of the Devizes Grammar School.

J. Vipond, B.A.:—English Master, Royal Academy, Inverness.

The Rev. E. V. Williams, M.A.:—Vice-Principal, North London Collegiate School.

XIII.—CORRESPONDENCE AND NOTES AND QUERIES.

I. THE NEW PROGRAMME.

SIR,—I believe I am by no means singular in the feeling of surprise with which I have read the "Official Programme" for the examination of students in training in December 1863. If it were not that I am too loyal a subject to do aught that would bring the Government into contempt, I should certainly prescribe the new "Syllabus" of the Committee of Privy-Council on Education to my pupils as a specimen of false grammar and faulty style, the correction of which would prove a most wholesome exercise. The document is not only not business-like, but positively illiterate in its obscurity, its baldness, its vagueness, its clumsiness of expression. Such a production is calculated to throw discredit on the education of the country; for if such a document issues from those who are to test and grant certificates to our teachers, what (the inevitable inference is) must be the state of the teachers themselves?

The first sentence of the paper runs as follows:—"Acting teachers attending the same examination may, at their option, take the papers of the first or second year, and they will find in each paper plain and simple questions specially noted for them, with directions that they need attempt nothing further."

There are at least four blunders in this sentence. *First*, to say that teachers attending "*the same* examination" may do so and so, necessarily implies that if they attend *different* examinations they need *not* do it. *Secondly*, the "papers of the first or second year," grammatically implies that the *same* papers are given for the first as for the second year; and hence, *thirdly*, to say that they may take these papers "at their option," as clearly implies that they may either take them or not as they please. To avoid these errors, the sentence should have been: "Acting teachers attending this examination may select, at their option, the papers of the first or of the second year." But, *fourthly*, not till it is so framed does the "former" of the next sentence become intelligible; and, *fifthly*, if certain questions are "specially noted for them," what can be the use or meaning of the "directions that they need attempt nothing further?"

The next paragraph, with even greater slovenliness, announces that "the relative proficiency (*division*) of the candidates according to examination, and whether they take the papers of the first or second year, is recorded in their certificates." The "office" must surely be aware that "the relative proficiency, etc.," and "whether they take the papers, etc.," are two distinct things; yet the chief educational authority in England tells its subordinates that these two things "*is* recorded in their certificates;" so much for the clumsiness of combining a word and a clause as the double subject of the same verb. But what definite idea can any one attach to "proficiency (*division*) according to examination?" The idea intended to be conveyed is that of classification "according to proficiency," which again suggests the melancholy reflection, that our educational administration is in the hands of persons who either do not know, or cannot say, what they mean. It would have been better to have said: "The division in which the candidates are placed, according to proficiency, is recorded in their certificates, which also specify whether the papers of the first or of the second year have been selected," etc.

Then if we examine the Syllabus in respect of the clearness and definiteness which should characterize its separate instructions, we shall find it equally discreditable and unbusiness-like. Thus, under the head of English, one class is

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required to give an "explanation" of a passage from a standard author. This may mean either a paraphrase or a commentary. It would appear by the way in which the word "paraphrase" is avoided in connexion with this class, that this once favourite exercise of the Council's best advisers has come into disfavour; but they will not say so. Be that as it may, a paraphrase is one thing and a commentary another; why do they not say, and why will they not inform us, which of them they want?

Another class is required to answer questions on the style of "Hamlet." As we are not informed whether it is the style of Hamlet himself, or of Polonius, or of the "players," that is meant, we are to infer, I suppose, that it is the style of the play of "Hamlet." Would it not have been advisable in our official guides to say what that means, if they have formed any idea to themselves of what it means? It is generally supposed that Shakspeare has no style, or, which is the same thing, has all styles, and that that is one of his claims to greatness. To propose an exercise in these terms is an absurdity.

Take a second subject: A paper is prescribed on "Economy," to comprise questions in "sanitary and other practical science of common application, and in political economy." Let the hodge-podge of subjects pass: what is meant by the "practical science of common application?" Is there any science which has not practical application? And yet we are left to divine whether physics (in its various branches), astronomy, geology, electricity, etc., is meant. Perhaps my Lords exercise a wise discretion after all in refusing to specify what they mean. It may be added that, with the view of giving us a faint clue to what they mean, they refer to no less authoritative a book than the 4th Irish Book, which the person who made the reference would have found, had he looked at it, to contain nothing of sanitary science, and next to nothing of any other.

Notwithstanding the time the Programme was in hands, its authors actually omitted to say whether they wanted the female students to study any music or not; and only when their attention was called to it did they, about a month after date, supply the omission.

Then mark the scandalous way in which they are strangling the study of Latin in our training-schools. After a sore struggle, they *promised* to yield the point; but it is a remarkable case of "keeping the word of promise to the ear, etc." For they tell us that we *have the option* (the italics are their own, and they do well to underline the words) of undertaking to translate any passage of Cæsar (not specified) in lieu of paraphrasing a prescribed passage of Milton or Shakspeare; and that, instead of answering those questions on the "style" of Hamlet, above alluded to, we are at liberty to prefer Virgil *ad aperturam*. I am not now discussing the propriety of the courses of study; but *mark this logic*:—The whole programme has for its design to contract and specify the subjects of study, for the sake of definiteness. The traditions of the "office" have been to object to Latin as a thing not needed by the elementary teacher, and latterly to reduce it, on that account, within certain very definite bounds; they now make us welcome to study it, provided we profess to read *ad aperturam*, that is, give up at least half of our whole time to the subject.—I am, etc.,

A Lecturer.

II. WHAT IS GOOD WRITING?

Sir,—I am greatly indebted to you for the prompt manner in which you helped me out of my difficulties respecting the "Illative Clause;" and now I bring before you another of my difficulties which, I am afraid, will not admit of such an easy solution: Can you tell me what the Privy-Council mean by "good penmanship?" Now that the Revised Code lays so much stress upon what have been facetiously termed the three R's, it behoves all engaged in the practical work of education to know what "their Lordships" consider to be good writing; but though Lord Palmerston himself has condescended to enlighten us on this point, I, for one, cannot understand what his Lordship means. In the new syllabus for male candidates in normal schools, we find this passage appended as a note:—"Writing, as taught in schools, is apt to be too small and indistinct. The letters are either not completely formed, or they are formed by alternate broad and fine strokes, which makes the words difficult to read. The handwriting which was generally practised in the early part and middle of the last century was far better

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than that now in common use. Pupils should be taught rather to imitate broad printing than fine copper-plate engraving."

Now it has always appeared to me that writing, "as taught in schools," is far from deserving the epithets here bestowed upon it; that, on the contrary, it is generally *large* and *clear*, and that it is only after any one has had a good deal of practice in writing, that the large "school-boy hand," as it is often termed, is apt to grow small and indistinct. But another fault is, that the letters "are formed by alternate broad and fine strokes, which makes the words difficult to read;" and we are recommended to teach our pupils "to imitate broad printing" rather than "fine copper-plate engraving." Now, does this seriously mean that children are no longer to attend to the old maxim in writing, "that the up-strokes are to be fine, and the down-strokes firm?" Does any one believe for one moment that fine "hair-strokes" make writing difficult to read? Can any one explain what is meant by "broad printing?" These are questions which I have tried in vain to answer, and which I now bring before the readers of the *Museum*. Perhaps some light might be thrown upon the subject if one knew what was the peculiar character of "the handwriting practised in the early part and middle of the last century," but of this subject I am entirely ignorant.

The extract which has been quoted, it is well known, is taken from a letter written at the dictation of our vigorous Premier two or three years ago. It was duly printed along with the syllabus at the time, and it has been repeated ever since. As I never could make out its practical value, I thought that it was only retained in its place out of compliment to the noble Lord; but when it appears again in the new syllabus, and our attention is specially directed to it, I have begun to think that perhaps after all it might mean something. Lord Palmerston, I have always thought, is too clever to write nonsense; and if he did, I should hope that the Education Department would be too wise to publish it. Perhaps some of the readers of the *Museum* may be able to see farther through a mill-stone than I can; and if so, no doubt they will be able to extract from the passage I have referred to an answer to the question, "What is good writing?" BETA.

III. THE ACCIDENTAL *v.* THE ESSENTIAL.

SIR,—If a savage in one of the unfrequented islands of Polynesia, who had never seen a vessel larger than a canoe, were to see a British barque and a Danish schooner, and be told that the former three-masted vessel with the Union Jack came from a port in Britain, and the latter two-masted one with the flag having a white cross on a red ground was from Denmark, it is very likely that he would suppose the next three-masted vessel he saw to belong to Britain, and the next two-masted one to be from Denmark.

Similar mistakes are frequently made by pupils. Thus, if a boy learning Arithmetic, has division by mixed numbers explained to him in an example having $8\frac{2}{3}$ as the divisor, where the dividend and divisor are both multiplied by 8, it is extremely probable that in beginning an example with the divisor $6\frac{1}{4}$, he will multiply by 6 instead of 4. For, finding the integer as well as the denominator in the former case to be 8, he will, notwithstanding the explanation which may have been given, either ask, "which 8 is the multiplier?" or, at once giving preference to the more prominent, consider the integer as the multiplier, and as formerly stated, apply this erroneous idea in working out an example where no such coincidence occurs.

So powerful indeed is the analogy of form, and so apt are pupils to be swayed by the eye rather than by the reason, that this proneness leads them often to confound the accidental with the essential features of a case. In further illustration of this, the following may suffice:—A pupil being told that 450 and 423 shillings were drawn for two rooms let at 9 shillings weekly, and that the former was thus let for 50 weeks, answered at once, without dividing, that the latter had been let for 23 weeks; his error being evidently caused by the coincidence of the terminal '50' with the first number of weeks.

In presenting a new subject to the consideration of a pupil, it is therefore advisable to strip the illustrative form of everything that can possibly divert his mind from the essential features of the case. Thus, in beginning division by mixed numbers, an example with the divisor $7\frac{1}{2}$ would be preferable to one with $5\frac{1}{2}$; or, to take an illustration from Chemistry, in explaining the plan of

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nomenclature by which the names of oxides of bases with names ending in *um* generally end in *a*, no one would take the anomalous case of ammonium and hydrated ammonia, but rather the examples of sodium and soda, or potassium and potassa.

Now, although it may be urged that the very exercise of distinguishing between the accidental and the essential features of a subject has a most beneficial effect, yet it must be remembered that this applies rather to a more advanced than to the initial stage of the pupil's knowledge of a subject. Again, it may be said: Show the pupil the reason fully, and he will not make any mistake. Believing, however, that it is only by practice in working that the pupil can learn to appreciate the reason, and that it is only by mastering a number of particular examples that he can learn to conceive of a general principle, it is evident that care is required in selecting illustrative processes; for as the public speaker must attend to the manner as well as the subject-matter of his discourse, so the teacher must attend to the particular example as well as the general principle of which it is an illustration. H. G. C. S.

XIV.—EDUCATION AT HOME AND ABROAD.

HOME.

ALTHOUGH no important educational movements or changes have characterized the past quarter, yet several topics of considerable interest have been discussed in the public journals, or hinted at in the proceedings of Parliament. Mr. Walter gave notice that on the 20th of March he would bring forward the same motion which had such a narrow escape of passing the House of Commons last year.* His proposal is to allow any school of the same class as those now entitled to a share of the public grant, to receive the Government allowance, provided the required "results" are exhibited, although the school be not under the charge of a certificated teacher and pupil-teachers. The effect of this will be to make certificated teachers no longer necessary appendages to schools under inspection; or, as some would express it, to do away with the monopoly now enjoyed by certificated teachers. There appeared in the *Times* newspaper a correspondence on this subject between Mr. Walter himself, Mr. Norris, an inspector of Church of England schools, and one or two other persons. Mr. Norris earnestly deprecated Mr. Walter's proposal, and urged him not to overthrow the existing system, but, at all events, to allow it a longer trial under the altered conditions introduced by the Revised Code. He advanced several cogent arguments in favour of the principle involved in the requirement of a certificate, and appealed to the acknowledged advantages which had resulted from the enforcement of the rule. Mr. Walter, however, was not convinced by Mr. Norris's reasoning, and in due time gave notice of his resolutions. It must certainly be admitted that his motion is consistent enough with the great principle of the Revised Code,—payment by results. It is not perhaps so directly opposed to the interests of certificated teachers themselves as might at first sight appear.

* At the suggestion of the Vice-President of the Committee of Council, Mr. Walter has postponed his motion till after the Easter recess.

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It must always be more to a man's advantage to have a diploma than to be without one; and if the trained masters and mistresses are superior to the untrained,—and of that there is no doubt,—their superiority will surely, as a rule, secure their employment wherever it is possible to employ them. The proposed change will, moreover, bring many more schools under inspection; and several of these schools will sooner or later find it to their advantage to secure the services of certificated teachers, and the more so, because the Government inspectors will generally recommend the adoption of this course, and will insist strongly on the advantages of certificates and training.

And here we may notice the fact that important changes are said to be in contemplation with reference to grants of public money to TRAINING-COLLEGES. These changes have reference both to mode of payment and to amount. The latter will probably hereafter be limited to something like seventy-five per cent. of the whole expenditure: the former will be simplified and adjusted more directly and completely to the favourite principle of "results."

It is probable, also, that the Government will ere long put forth some scheme for dealing with CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS, and making them more available for purposes of education. Earl Granville, in reply to an inquiry made by Lord Wrottesley, intimated "that the general question was under the consideration of Government."

Mr. Dilwyn has obtained leave to bring in a "Bill to Amend the Law relating to Endowed Schools." The laws which he proposes "to amend" are those "relating to the government and religious teaching of such schools." He seeks, among other things, to secure for every subject of the realm, whatever may be his religious belief, the right of being capable of election to serve as trustee or master of any endowed school, not expressly and by the clearest evidence "founded for the immediate use and benefit of members of the Church of England." He is acting, therefore, in the interests of Nonconformity, and may count upon the most determined and vigorous opposition of the majority of Churchmen. His bill may possibly make its way to a third reading; but, should it struggle through the Commons, it will inevitably come to grief in the more unfriendly region of the Lords.

Murmurs are already beginning to be heard in connexion with the working of the REVISED CODE. Its introduction into schools has so far, of course, only been exceptional, and its general adoption will not take place till after next June. Managers and teachers, however, do not seem altogether to like the prospect before them, as it draws nearer, and is more clearly seen and more closely scrutinized. That there will, in many cases, be a considerable loss of funds is undeniable, and this loss it will often be hard to make up, and harder still to bear. Something may be done in the way of raising the school fees, which have, in the case of many town schools at all events, been far too low, when compared with the prevailing rate of wages, and the circumstances of the majority of the parents. But there will be a very general tendency to dispense as much as possible with the services of pupil-teachers, and to work the school in the cheapest way. It is

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quite possible, of course, to make a school at once economical and efficient; an economy which destroys or impairs efficiency is strongly to be deprecated, and ought not to be forced on school-managers. It really seems as if the predicted "glut in the market" had already taken place, and that the supply of teachers had come to be materially in excess of the demand. The training-schools have not yet been able to find situations for all the students who went out at Christmas; and the advertisement columns of the National Socitey's monthly paper exhibit a very discouraging preponderance of "situations wanted" over "teachers wanted." It seems to be a question whether the Training-Colleges ought not to moderate somewhat the extent of their operations, and to abate a little the briskness of their manufacture. A long time ago Lord Bacon warned us of the evil that may arise "when more are bred scholars than preferments can take off."

A very important and interesting document has just appeared in the form of a REPORT, addressed by Andrew Doyle, Esq., Poor-law Inspector, to the President of the POOR-LAW BOARD. It is especially directed against the conclusions and suggestions of the Royal Education Commissioners, with reference to the state of workhouse schools and the education of pauper children. Mr. Doyle declares that the Commissioners had very insufficient grounds for their sweeping condemnation of the system; he considers that the inquiry, as conducted by them, was "unfairly restricted;" and he maintains that the conclusions which they arrived at "are inconsistent with the facts of the actual condition of pauper education throughout the kingdom." He calls attention to the fact that the Assistant Commissioners had no instructions to inquire into the condition of workhouse schools, and that the conclusions of the Commissioners themselves, where they are not "merely speculative opinions," are culled from reports published eight, ten, and twelve years ago. The report of Mr. Doyle himself seems to give a thorough and complete survey of the actual state of things.

It is exactly twelve months since we referred in these pages to the institution of COLLEGE HALLS and COMMON TABLES as a much needed adjunct to the Scottish University system. We are glad to find that the scheme is receiving a fair trial, and is likely to meet with a success proportioned to the importance of the movement. The St. Andrews Hall, we learn on the authority of its promoters, has been very successful, some sixteen students having mustered during the past session. It is also gratifying to know that the proposal, in accordance with our suggestion of last year, to establish a similar hall in connexion with Edinburgh University has already met with a large measure of acceptance, having assumed the very practical shape of the "Edinburgh College Hall Company (Limited)." From the prospectus of this scheme we learn that 160 out of 600 £25-shares have already been subscribed for, representing £4000 of the £15,000 which is to constitute the capital of the Company. The ultimate success of the institution will very much depend upon the clearness and steadiness with which, in working out the details of the scheme, its leading objects are kept in view by all classes of its supporters. However

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desirable it may be to afford students "the opportunity of association with one another," it were a pity if the artificial production of a "college-life," in imitation of that of the English Universities, were to obscure the higher aims of the proposal, namely the securing of a more careful supervision, domestic and academical, of the students attending the Scottish Universities; and that with a view to the full equipment and the elevation of these Universities, both as regards the standard of their teaching, and in some degree also the class of students attending them. Hence the promoters of such a Hall should not be satisfied merely with bringing a number of students together, with filling their Hall and making it commercially a success. It must not, for example, be a mere boarding-house in connexion with the University, for the admission of young men and boys, of all ages and degrees of attainment. This (and there is some danger of such a result at St. Andrews) will not only perpetuate some of the worst faults of the Scottish Universities, but will defeat the chief end of these Halls by rendering any uniform principle of discipline and management quite impracticable. For it is obvious that the mode of life which may be not only permissible but quite proper for young men of nineteen and twenty, would be mischievous for boys of fifteen and sixteen; just as the tighter rein which is required for the latter would inevitably lead to recalcitration on the part of the former. We are therefore glad to know that the Edinburgh Committee contemplate fixing upon seventeen as the minimum age for entrants to their Hall. This is so far well; though we cannot but think that a somewhat adequate entrance examination would be an additional advantage, as tending to secure a workable equality in the attainments of the inmates, and to promote the due elevation of the University system. It further occurs to us that the capital sum fixed upon by the Provisional Committee for erecting and starting the Edinburgh Hall is unnecessarily high. Though not too much absolutely to expend for such a purpose, yet £15,000 is a large sum to expend upon fifty students. The consequence is, that they have been compelled to fix their charges to students at the high rate of £8 per month, which is not only above the average rate of similar halls elsewhere, but much higher than the great mass of Scottish students can afford to pay,—though if this has the effect of retaining a sufficient number of those who *can* afford it, we shall be the last to complain. But it should have occurred to the promoters of the Hall, that the cost of providing for each student above the first forty or fifty is, of course, within certain limits, constantly diminishing; so that, by a slight addition to dormitory accommodation merely, they might offer the advantages of the Hall to a greater number,—say, sixty or seventy,—*at a somewhat lower rate for each.* In this connexion it should also be remembered that the wider the basis of the Hall socially, and the more it takes up a middle position, —not too high for the one end of the social scale, and not too low for the other,—the more likely is it to keep clear of the obnoxious element of caste, and to become a solid and wholesome addition to the University system. It is also necessary, let us add before leaving this

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subject, that the projectors of this scheme scrupulously avoid everything that could excite the faintest suspicion of their making the movement subservient to any ecclesiastical or political purposes,—to any but strictly and purely scholastic ends. Any such attempt, whether by prelate or by presbyter, by Tory or by Whig, would inevitably prove ruinous to the whole concern.

GERMANY.

In Prussia, the contest on the merits of the *Regulativen* of 1854 is no longer the order of the day. It has given way to newer questions; while, at the same time, all other questions retire for the moment before the engrossing interest of the constitutional struggle. The number of the PRE-REGULATION TEACHERS diminishes by death or retirement every year, and their ranks are not being filled up by any new recruits. Once now and then the sullen silence of this "Old Guard" is broken by a cry of defiance, which shows that, reduced as they are in number, they have not surrendered their principles, or forgotten their wrongs. The most recent of these manifestoes comes from Silesia, and has almost been forced from them by a fresh aggressive movement of the victorious party. A statement had been publicly put forward last year, pointing out, in continuation of previous similar *exposés*, the great advances which were being made in the training-schools for elementary masters, as the system of the *Regulations* of 1854 was more and more strictly applied. To this statement the greatest possible authority necessarily attached, as it was made in the official organ of the Education Department, which is under not only the control, but the immediate management, of the administrative chief of the Department, *Geheimrath* Stiehl. The paper, while yielding a few insignificant points, brought out in strong relief the deficiencies of the old system, and specially in the subjects of Divinity and the German language. Its remarks were confined to the training-schools, and to the province of Silesia. Though such an effect was, we are bound to believe, not intended by the framer of the official statement, yet the old teachers, and to some extent their pupils, felt that an imputation was cast upon themselves. C. J. Löschke, forty years teacher of religion at the Breslau Training-College, comes forward to clear his ancient coadjutors and himself from the imputation of inefficiency. His pamphlet is perfectly temperate, and not even in form controversial. It is a mere statement of facts, which seem to rebut, so far as such charges admit of being rebutted, the accusation of inefficient teaching of the two subjects named at the Breslau Training-College. But if Herr Stiehl's charge be inapplicable to the seminary at Breslau, to which of the Silesian training-colleges is it applicable? It can only be to Bunzlau; for Glogau is Catholic, and Münsterberg is a recent foundation. We shall wait to see if the old Bunzlau teachers will sit in patience under the stigma that has been thus publicly cast upon them.

The demands of industrial occupation continue to make inroads on the COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE. The strict letter of the law is

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obliged to be relaxed for the centres of manufacturing labour. The city of Berlin has been under a special ordinance of its own, which dates from 1844. As manufacturing industry of very various kinds develops rapidly in that capital, dispensations from full attendance at school have been gradually found necessary for the children employed in the various mills. These dispensations have, by a recent ordinance, which came into force on the 1st of October last, received official recognition. By this ordinance, the half-day (three hours) school is sanctioned for children between twelve and fourteen, who are in regular employment in Factories falling under the definition of the law of 16th May 1853. With respect to that large and increasing class of children under fourteen, who are worked at home by their parents, or are employed in workshops and establishments not being *factories* in the eye of the law, the full school-time (six hours) is to continue to be required of them. A dispensation, however, may be granted in exceptional cases, where the circumstances of the parents appear to render it imperatively necessary. The dispensation, in such cases, is only to be to the extent of half school-time. The petition which the Corporation of Berlin, in April last, addressed to the Ministry of Instruction, praying that the hours of employment in factories might be extended from six to ten hours in the twenty-four, has not been complied with. The law on this subject accordingly remains as it was enacted in 1853. By that enactment, the hours of labour for children under sixteen, which had been fixed at ten hours in the twenty-four, were reduced to six, and 8.30 p.m. fixed as the latest hour at which they might continue at work. Public opinion in Prussia, we believe, bears out the Government in thus resisting the encroachments of manufacturing industry on the system of compulsory school-attendance.

THE SLENDER PAY and the wretched poverty of the Prussian elementary schoolmaster continues, as it was in 1848, one of his first and most real grievances. The balance-sheet of the Bureau of Public Instruction exhibits every year considerable sums credited to "Augmentations of Stipend." Yet so wide-spread is the evil that such assistance is scarcely felt even as a palliative. Besides this, the sums so appropriated are distributed in the form of gratifications; a form objectionable, because were it not actually tainted with favouritism, it is sure to be suspected of being so. Notwithstanding that the charter of 1850 bears inscribed upon its face the public promise that these just complaints of insufficient provision should be attended to, little or nothing has yet been done. It can still be affirmed with truth that the schoolmaster looks with envy upon the wage of a journeyman mason, and that there are even places where his income does not equal that of the common operative. It is commonly admitted that in the eastern provinces of Prussia, 150 thalers (£23) is the lowest sum on which he could maintain a family in respectability; while in the western and manufacturing districts of Aix-la-Chapelle and Düsseldorf, etc., at least 200 or 250 thalers are required; house, garden, firewood, not being included in these computations. The annual sum required to bring the stipends all over Prussia up to this minimum is so large,

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that no Government could propose to raise it upon the general taxation of the country. Nor would even the most zealous friends of education urge such a measure. But it is generally agreed that a considerable sum to be devoted to raising stipends of teachers ought to figure in the budget of each year. And it is complained, not without reason, that Government has hitherto shown blameable remissness on this head. It has, in fact, done nothing worth speaking of in this direction as yet. The only recent step of the kind which we can trace in the intelligence which has come to hand, is one of the government of a single province —that of Posen. It is proposed in that province to raise the pension allowed to the widows of schoolmasters from twelve thalers to twenty-four thalers. The present pension is only twelve thalers, or £1, 16s. a year! This it is proposed to double; when this is effected, the teacher's widow, with perhaps a family to support, will have the sum of £3, 12s. per annum to look to! These pensions, however, are not paid out of taxes, but on the principle of mutual insurance, every teacher contributing to the Widow's Fund out of his narrow income. This deduction from stipend has been hitherto two thalers per man. In order to raise the pension from twelve to twenty-four thalers, it is now proposed to double the contribution. The system of providing for a retired (*emeritus*) teacher is to charge his pension upon his successor; so that when a teacher, after some years' service, at last gets a school, he perhaps finds himself in receipt of only two-thirds of the stipend of it. It is always to be remembered that one people cannot judge what another people ought to do; for what is easy to one government is difficult to another. Yet, making every allowance, it does seem to us incredible that in a country which professes to make so much of education—the State of Intelligence—these crying evils cannot be remedied.

Bremen has always set an example of liberality which might have shamed Prussia into action. And now the Senate and Corporation of that free city have again raised the stipends of its masters. The minimum of the ordinary class-teacher is to be 130 thalers, with twenty-four thalers added every five years of service, up to 300 thalers. The head-masters are to have from 250 thalers to 400 thalers, and to be increased thirty thalers every five years. The little duchy of Brunswick, too, has been doing that which it seems is impossible in Prussia. The incomes of the masters have just been fixed on a scale of which the minimum is 250 thalers, the maximum 500 thalers. These are rates of payment which will remove all ground of complaint among the masters: besides which, the system of pensioning upon the successor's income is to be given up. This regulation applies only to the city of Brunswick. The minimum in the village schools of the duchy remains at present 175 thalers, not including house and garden.

The 14th Annual Meeting of German teachers is to take place this year at Mannheim, during the Whitsun holidays, May 26, 27, 28. Wander, Kühn, and Director Lüben among others, have promised papers. The most eminent teachers in Germany stand aloof from this

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Association, because it is not looked upon with a favourable eye by the High Lutheran and Catholic Governments. It is in fact supported by the spontaneous combinations of the teachers themselves, and is therefore in some measure the rival of the organized "Conferences." For this very reason, it has a peculiar value in the eyes of foreign countries; as it is in its meetings we may expect to gather the free and unbiassed sentiments of the German elementary schoolmasters. An attempt to get up one of these voluntary associations of teachers in Prussian Silesia last year fell through. It seems to us much more surprising that the attempt should have been made, than that it should have failed. Bavaria however has, it seems, allowed the formation of a *Volksschullehrerverein*, which held a general meeting last year in Nürnberg. As this "Union," it appears, is intended to include the Catholic teachers we can scarcely expect it to come to much. The position of the Protestants in Northern Bavaria is such that hearty co-operation with the Catholic portion of the population in education can hardly be hoped for.

FRANCE.

To form a clear apprehension of the footing upon which education is placed in France, it must be understood that it is essentially a public one. The State interferes as much with the education of its members as it does with the administration of the army or of the navy, or with the action of the diplomatic body. Each secondary school in the empire is in some way connected with the University; each primary school, with the Central Council, which directs the educational hierarchy: and the programme which each teacher, whether male or female, must follow, is traced out by the Minister of Public Instruction. Private teachers, as a general rule, receive diplomas from commissioners, delegated by the Council of Public Instruction to hold, at certain periods of the year, examinations in twenty-five different towns of France; and that body even appoints inspectors and inspectresses to visit young ladies' boarding-schools. It is impossible for any one not belonging to some religious community, to open, without a special licence, an educational establishment, unless his or her capacity to direct it has been tested in the manner prescribed by law. And the course of studies followed in any of the provincial Lycées is in most respects the same as that pursued in those of Paris. The masters who teach in all these secondary schools have, without exception, on obtaining the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the University, or some of its branches, been trained in the Ecole Normale. They are furthermore liable to be, at a short notice, transferred from the capital to the provinces, and from the provinces to the capital. Nor do their superiors often fail to exercise their power of making them frequently change places with each other. They are obliged to shift their quarters as often as are the police magistrates, and, in some cases, the regiments composing a *corps d'armée*. It is not a raro thing to hear of a professor of history, or of ancient languages, or of literature, or of

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physics, or of any other branch of knowledge cultivated in every public secondary school in France, one day teaching a class in the Lycée Bonaparte, dining in the Palais Royale, and, after doing so, going to the Theatre Français, or half-a-dozen of the most brilliant *salons* in the capital, and finding, on his return home, an order for him to set off, a fortnight, or even a week after, to Nancy, Rouen, Lyons, or perhaps some district in which human beings rather vegetate than live. If a married man, so much the worse for him; for, like nature, the State protects the species very often by sacrificing the individual, and is more anxious to preserve uniformity of education, and ensure a fresh supply of teachers to each of the twenty-five points of the empire in which the University is most especially represented, than to respect the household gods of its paid servants. M. Eugène Pelletan recommends those members of the educational hierarchy never to buy a carpet that could not in some way be made to suit a room of any size, shape, or aspect; and, above all things, to abstain from purchasing pieces of furniture which could not be made almost to fit into a travelling-bag; as well as to see, when entering the matrimonial state, that the ladies with whom they wish to pass their lives have no taste for accumulating bargains. M. Alfred Assolant, whose "Pictures of English Life" created, last summer, so much amusement both in London and Paris, made, on leaving the Ecole Normale in 1849, a forced tour of the western provinces of France. In less than two years he was transferred from Orleans to Soissons, from Soissons to Poitiers, and from the latter to some still duller town, where, in the beginning of 1851, he threw aside the gown of the professor for the *blouse* of a printer, rather than remain an exile from Paris. M. Weiss, a publicist, who has, since the foundation of the second Empire, acquired, as such, a European reputation, made a similar tour, in a still shorter time, in company with Taine, Prévost-Paradol, and Emile Deschanel. And Edmond About would have been obliged to follow them in their peregrinations, had not his pen proved an indispensable auxiliary to the Emperor when the Imperial Government first thought of deserting its clerical allies, and adopted a policy favourable to Italy.

The unity effected by this mode of organization is so strong, that few who are not familiar with it can form an adequate idea of what it is. It is more regular in its operations, and far more inflexible in dealing with those who come within its reach, than is with us the administration of inland revenue. The provisions of the laws by means of which supplies are granted to the British Government may occasionally be evaded. But there is no possibility of evading the programmes traced out in the circulars of the Minister of Public Instruction. The youths of France might as well attempt to escape from the Conscription, as a professor in any secondary school to set his face against the rules laid down for his direction in Paris. A decree issuing from the Tuileries could with as much facility revolutionize the machinery of public education in France, as an order from the Horse Guards could make the entire garrison of Ireland change its quarters. If completeness can be said to consist in the utter and entire dependence on each other of the different parts forming a whole, the French national system of

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instruction may be called the most complete educational system in the world. And were the most extreme theories of the Republicans to be adopted in France, the University, and its various ramifications, with the Council of Public Instruction, would, in themselves, form, in the eyes of all, as strong a symbol of that indivisible nationality proclaimed by the Revolutionary Government, as could any king or emperor.

In another paper we shall examine the disadvantages in all that concerns instruction, properly so called, and the disadvantages in all that concerns the development of character, which arise from this system. It is for the present our intention to confine ourselves to tracing from its commencement public instruction in France, its progress, and its past conditions. By doing so, it will be shown why the French capital, apart from the lively genius of the French people, has, in a certain development of intellectual activity, taken the lead of every other capital in Europe; and why the company of literary men was sought in Paris by the noble and the wealthy, when authors were in England regarded in much the same light as a governess now is by her employers. But, above all, it will be understood why the tone of French classic literature is pre-eminently conventional; why the tendency of the learned bodies, and the general system of public instruction in France, is scholastic rather than educational: and the source will be seen from whence proceeds the unpractical character either of French liberalism, socialism, or legitimacy.

The origin of public education in France can be traced back to the eighth century. Half a century before Egbert had united the kingdoms of the Heptarchy into one State, Charlemagne laid the foundations of the University. This emperor did not intend that it should have been a mere theological school,—although some eminent French historians are of opinion that his object in founding it was to prevent, in his States, the growth of that Papal supremacy which the Gallican Church ever resisted, but to which Spain and other European nations submitted almost without a struggle. When he created the Empire of the West, Rome was doubly metropolitan, not only by being the seat of the Papacy, but by monopolizing nearly all the learning that had outlived in Europe the irruptions of the Goths and Vandals. Until after the dissolution of the Council of Trent, there was in Rome a more liberal spirit abroad than elsewhere. The theologian or the scholar educated there would not have promulgated to so great an extent as did the theologian and the scholar educated on this side of the Alps, the belief that salvation could only be secured by sacrificing the body, or that the most meritorious thing in the sight of Heaven was, so far as it was possible without destroying life, to anticipate death by effecting a divorce between the spirit and the flesh. In the Paris University, this idea took deep root till long after the Reformation. Science and knowledge of a positive kind were placed under a ban, as proceeding from a material, and therefore a carnal or diabolical, principle. But it was impossible for the human mind, even then, to remain inactive. No sooner had the Church, by

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means of the terrors of her spiritual artillery, her moral influence, and her superior learning, acquired a supremacy over those scourges of humanity, the feudal barons, than the scholastic spirit took a strong and sudden development. Wrangling became the order of the day, and scholastic disputants compounded for the absolute sway which theological dogmas exercised over their minds, by going into all the extremes of metaphysical subtleties.

At a time when disputation was the principal development which the intellect took, and any progress towards inductive philosophy would have inevitably resulted in a charge of heresy or of sorcery, it was in the nature of things that whatever ancient form of reasoning or argumentation had outlived the destruction of the Roman, and subsequently of the Greek empire, should be adopted. With that extreme admiration for what is rightly or wrongly supposed to be a fitting object of veneration, which marks a people in its infancy as well as an individual, the logicians of ancient Greece were placed by the scholars of the middle ages upon the same pedestal as Augustine, Tertullian, and Athanasius. Amidst the rudeness and ferocity of the mediæval period, each wrangler borrowed his logical weapons from Aristotle. He thought of whetting his mind rather than of furnishing it,—of the form and not of the substance of his disputations. In the course of time a union was effected between Aristotle's writings and the theological system, which was as much the growth of the middle ages as it was the work of the Church of Rome. This spiritual marriage, of which, certainly, the tutor of Alexander never dreamt, was, a century after it was accomplished, considered no less sacred than any dogma that was defended by the Sorbonne. All the authority of the divines who taught there was lent to the Greek dialectician; and the Platonic and Aristotelian systems, with the theories of the Alexandrian school and the monkish legends of the dark ages, were all confounded together in a grotesque medley. The two first, but more especially Aristotle, reigned supreme at the University. Until the breath of the *renaissance* passed from Italy over France, nobody ever thought of questioning his authority. A student, named Ramus, who had the reputation of being a philosopher, and was, like many of his contemporaries, endowed with a bold intellect and a certain independence of character, one day timidly advanced the heresy that Aristotle was not so orthodox as the French doctors thought. The heresiarch was immediately apprehended by the *massiers* of the University, and would have been put to death had it not been for the Queen of Navarre, who prevailed upon her brother, Francis I., to interfere between Ramus and his judges. But the crime of the ill-used student was considered to be of such gravity, that the king could not venture to take upon himself the responsibility of granting him a pardon. He was accordingly brought before the Royal Council, which freed him, on the condition of publicly retracting his errors, and forbearing for the future to criticise the infallible Pagan. But if Ramus kept his word, his revolt set an example which was so often imitated, that in 1624 the Parliament of Paris lent

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its judicial power to the University, for the purpose of enabling it to exile three of its members, who said that the Aristotelian system was not the most perfect of its kind to which the human intellect could attain. A year later, some others were guilty of a like offence. The Parliament a second time interposed, and aided in expelling the audacious collegians, who were commanded, under pain of mutilation, and even of death, to abstain from spreading their abominable errors! When promulgating this decree, that high court of law extended also its protection to all the ancient authors approved of by the University.

The whole literature of Greece and Rome was thus shielded from criticism. The Parliament taught the nation to respect the ancients as well by precept as by example. The *avocat* who was able to crowd into his speech the greatest number of mythological allusions, or of quotations from Homer, Anacreon, Euripides, Seneca, Cato, Julius Cæsar, and even Cornelius Nepos, was sure of obtaining a judgment in favour of his client. If he accused the client of his adversary of having taken a false oath, or of having committed a murder, the latter met the accusation by telling the councillors who formed the supreme tribunal, how the goddess Ceres bit off Pelops' shoulder, and afterwards gave him an ivory one in its stead. Mythology settled every difficulty; and if an *avocat* did not happen to be familiar with it, a quotation, no matter how far-fetched, from Roman history, served his purpose about as well.*

The cause of this coalition was twofold. It may be assumed that it proceeded from a dread of Richelieu's dominating spirit, no less than from the dogmatic bias which, so early as the thirteenth century, the University gave to her richly endowed school then founded by Robert Sorbon, with the end of enabling priests and divinity students to teach and to be taught gratuitously. The University would have dealt single-handed with its refractory members, had it not been actuated to do otherwise by a fear that the Cardinal, in his determination to subdue Protestantism, would, if it did not give a proof of its orthodoxy, deal harshly with it, as well as by that inherent dislike to innovation, which is ever the result of ecclesiastical teaching. The kings of France not only granted it numerous privileges, but these were so important that this lay corporation, dominated by a clerical spirit, enjoyed the position of an independent commonwealth. A century and a half before Louis Quatorze called himself "the eldest son of the Church," the University was called "the eldest daughter of the French kings." So early as 1231, Gregory IX., by a bull, accorded it "the right to suspend all its lessons, exercises, and sermons, in case of any of its privileges, whether present or future, being violated." Its members thus acquired so much importance in public estimation, that during several reigns the Court did everything in its power to obtain their favour. Sometimes foreign sovereigns consulted them. Occasionally the Papacy itself stood in awe of them, and always, till the seventeenth century, endeavoured to secure their support by a conciliatory policy. They con-

* See Lomenie's *Eloquence of the French Bar.*

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stituted a republic recruited from all classes of the kingdom, but least of all from the nobility. This literary republic was governed by a Rector, who was elected for life by all the students and professors belonging to it; and the office of *Proviseur* of the Sorbonne was often coveted by cardinals. Degrees were conferred with so much solemnity that, during three reigns, the Court always attended to witness the ceremonial which marked the transformation of the student into the bachelor, or the bachelor into a doctor of one of the four faculties: of which, the faculty of theology was open only to churchmen; the faculty of arts to laymen and secular ecclesiastics; the faculty of medicine to the former; and the faculty of law or decrees to both; whilst those belonging to each, except the faculty of medicine, were obliged to take the vow of celibacy, the members of the latter having been exempted from this obligation in 1452. The liberality of Francis I. brought in his reign the University up to its highest pitch of prosperity. The wealth and influence of its heads, as well as of its most humble members, enabled them to stand on a footing of equality with the nobility of France, and laid deep the foundation of that respect for learning which has for centuries distinguished the French nation. The Sorbonne, or University, possessed judicial powers, which enabled it to punish all who had the hardihood to insult it in its corporate capacity, or in the person of any of its members. The lowest scholar belonging to it was entitled to rank as a man of illustrious birth, and to wear a sword. He paid no taxes, either direct or indirect. Whenever a workman living near his dwelling annoyed him by exercising his trade, or by his songs, the more privileged student could force him to establish himself elsewhere. When any one owed him money, his claim had the priority of every other. If he happened to be a debtor, his creditor could not arrest him until after three citations had been personally served on him, between each of which a period of nine months should intervene; and after the third was duly handed to him, the person who sought to recover the debt was by no means certain of the law being interpreted in his favour. This security against the probability of ever being subjected to the restraints of a debtor's prison might have resulted in cutting off the student's supplies, had not the charters of the University enabled its members to levy forced ones in case of necessity. The scholar, whether of high or low degree, could, when travelling, demand a horse from any farmer through whose land his route lay. In Paris, he could billet himself upon any citizen belonging to the *bourgeoisie*.* He exercised sovereign power in the *Pré-aux-clercs*, where he waylaid the passers-by whenever he felt inclined to do so, which was not unfrequently, and was guilty of as many misdemeanours as were at the same time the young Templars when visiting Alsatia. His rector alone could punish him. But this was not all; the scholar, like a knight of old, was served for nothing by followers who attached themselves to his person, for the purpose of obtaining the protection of the University, and,

* Monteil's *Etats Français.*

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under the shelter of their master, indulging in such disorderly tastes as are in our time displayed on the barricades and in street *émeutes* by the Paris workmen.

During the administration of Cardinal Richelieu, the University lost much of its ancient prestige. Whilst the conflict between Port-Royal and the Jesuits was being waged, it took the part of the latter. The Jesuits, notwithstanding, intrigued against it, and made repeated efforts to build their college on the foundation or the ruins of the other.

During the reign of Henry IV. and the regency of Mary de Medicis, some students strove to set up Rabelais and Amyot as being superior to the arid productions of the schoolmen. Subsequently some others added Montaigne to this list of standard authors. But they fared as Ramus did in the time of Francis I. The Parliament again interposed, and by punishing them, gave the youth of France to understand that they were under the alternative of letting their brains die of hunger, or of feeding them with the indigestible learning of their predecessors.

But the University paid a heavy penalty for having made this alliance. Through it was lost its independence, which Papal bulls and royal charters alike guaranteed. It was therefore, at a subsequent period, easily reduced to a cipher in the hands of the French Monarchs, when all the power of the nobility was monopolized by them. But their more extensive cultivation of scientific knowledge, and their less pedantic method of education, did more to weaken the other than did all their secret machinations. The followers of Loyola knew well, that to rule the world, it was necessary to follow the world in its onward course. Far from upholding an irrational system of theology, as its opponents by their suppleness did, the ultra-conservative tendencies of the University did much to overthrow it. It was not in the nature of things for the human mind to be tied down any longer to a monkish system of divinity. It could not continue in the belief that the sole object of scientific knowledge was to reconcile theological contradictions. Nor could it cease to investigate into natural law, whenever it was found that those discrepancies became, in the light of positive knowledge, more irreconcilable than ever. But it was no less necessary for the mind to place before it some ideal standard of perfection, chosen from within the circle of its acquirements. And when, owing to the too rigid orthodoxy of the learned bodies, it became a matter of extreme difficulty for those brought up under them to remain Christians, they not unnaturally turned Pagans. The irrational side of Greek and Roman Paganism was not so apparent as the follies upheld alike by the Papal thunders and the secular arm. The time had not yet come when men should cease to regard as an especial object of veneration an empire which, above every other, sprang from violence, and dropped to pieces from its utter rottenness. They were not, in France, ripe for such a change of opinion till after the Restoration, when imperial Rome, for the first time, was regarded by the French as a mere stage in the world's onward progress. Collegians and students in most of the educational establishments in France were, so late

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as the last half of the eighteenth century, taught to regard the institutions of ancient Rome as the *ne plus ultra* of perfection. The consequence of this was, that when they developed into legislators, they framed laws which are a disgrace to the French code, or strove to solve every political difficulty by decreeing a proscription. Whilst Voltaire was wielding the weapons placed in his hands by the Jesuits against abuses in France that were as much social and political as universal, Robespierre was laying the foundation of his classic bigotry. A little later, he was imbued in the law school of Paris with the intense admiration for Roman statesmen, which was cultivated there. The worship of Aristotle was, it subsequently proved, preferable to the worship of Junius and Marcus Brutus, and the Cæsars. When the last was mingled with the uncompromising dogmatism of the middle ages, it resulted in the Reign of Terror, during which every vestige of the University was swept away. Long before this period of violence, that institution, like every other that grew up under the ancient monarchy, had become an *effete* body. Whatever spark of vitality remained in it was exerted for the sole purpose of making head against the reforming spirit of the day. The only thing for which this ancient corporation struggled was to retain its ancient privileges. Its sole shield against the Radicalism of the eighteenth century, was immobility. Pius IX. does not better know than it did, how to entrench a weak cause behind an unyielding *non possumus*. The more enlightened portion of French society, and the French Academy, of necessity ceased to venerate *Alma Mater*, and at length became so indifferent as to its ultimate fate, that the Paris Parliament met with no serious opposition when it proclaimed itself the highest theological, as well as legal authority of the realm. It summoned to its bar the Rector of the University, condemned the books published with his approbation, and the deliberations at which he presided. This was the last stage of its decrepitude; and so powerless, so devoid of influence had it become when the Revolution burst forth, that that centre of learning in France, which was founded by the grandson of Charles Martel, and which had held in check most of the princes of the House of Valois, had hardly a friend to raise his voice on its behalf. The less ancient *noblesse*, although the most ancient in Europe, had numerous defenders, and held to some extent its ground against the democratic spirit which in 1789 took deep root in France. But the University, if its spirit had leavened the whole nation then, disappeared only to rise under an essentially new form, when the first Napoleon undertook to re-establish the empire of Charlemagne.

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THE MUSEUM.

JULY 1863.

I.—SIR GEORGE CORNEWALL LEWIS.

IN MEMORIAM.

With a unanimity unexampled in modern days, the press has paid its unreserved, ungrudging tribute to the scholar, philosopher, and statesman, whose loss, as it is the latest, so also is the greatest, which has befallen our foremost rank of representative men for many a year. The first lamentations are over. The bitterness of death is past. The outer world, having bid its commendatory farewell, acquiesces in the formal filling up of a vacant place, and insensibly transfers its interest to the living. The short-sighted and superficial quote the words, "*uno avulso non deficit alter*," as a consolation for the withdrawal of one of the ablest, most honest, most real and thorough workers, in our literary and political battle-field; but the reflecting person must needs gather, from the consentient voice of the public Journals, without any intimate knowledge of the man himself, that the void caused by the removal of one endued with such rare excellences will hardly be filled up by any one man of our time, even if each of his single gifts can be found, one in one and another in another. The life-long research into history and its precedents; the sound judgment which exactly estimated the teaching of that research; the dispassionate mind, so free from bias, so innocent of other motive than love of truth; the exhaustive handling of questions; the orderly arrangement of the results of reading and experience, are a few of the many excellences in which he was unmatched by any contemporary, and in which he might have been said to *outshine* all his compeers, if there were not in that word *outshine* something foreign to his simple, unpretentious nature.

Not in the vain hope of heightening a nation's sense of those excellences, or of fathoming the secret of Sir George Lewis's advances, year by year, in the confidence and favour of every one who has

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England's greatness and honour at heart, is a space allotted here to a necessarily late "*In Memoriam.*" Rather would we ascribe the following remarks to the promptings of a gratitude which cannot pass over in silence inestimable and untiring services to the cause of learning and education. Let others tell his political deserts. Scholars, without any indifference to the enhancement of their craft by the elevation of one of themselves to the highest rank of statesmanship, cannot but count it his highest praise that, in the full gratification of political success, he forgot not his first love—literature. They set most store on his constancy to their common mistress, from whose service he never swerved in spite of the most potent counter-charms; and hence this passing notice of Sir G. C. Lewis as a literary man, this imperfect acknowledgment of the debt under which he has laid the whole community of letters.

It is no figure of speech to describe the literary world as owing Sir George C. Lewis a special debt of gratitude. He raised its "status," not as other men in his position do. He was not content with conferring questionable honour on literature by occasionally dabbling in it, as many do, who have time on their hands, and money to throw away on short-lived memorials of their own vanity. Nor was he a fitful patron of men of letters, like the statesmen of a bygone age, who cherished, or would fain have been thought to cherish, literary merit. The part of a pseudo-Mæcenas was one to which the earnest, stedfast worker whom we lament, would have been utterly unequal. He deserves rather all the credit attaching to one who, from choice and love, became a working member of the confraternity, and clung assiduously to its occupations and pursuits after the claims of health and relaxation, added to his established position as a statesman and a scholar, might have abundantly justified his resting on his oars. But, in truth, literature was his relaxation. Fitly has Mr. Weigall depicted him in a portrait not likely to be unobserved in this year's exhibition at the Royal Academy, with his books around him, and about him, in the congenial sphere of his library. There, in the vacations, devoted by most statesmen to grousing, or pheasant-shooting, or yachting, his tired spirit sought restoration of its tone in constructing a Survey of the Astronomy of the Ancients, or exhaustively testing the Credibility of Early Roman History. Books of reference, old and new—Greek, Latin, English, German—lay open on floor, chairs, tables, and yet in no real disorder; for the exact reference to each was extracted at the proper time, and each step in every disquisition was opportunely substantiated by some pertinent corroboration. The mind that could thus refresh itself could neither have been common nor commonly trained; and the survey of such a life furnishes no uninstructive example.

Born on the Welsh border, in a little county, which his own talents and those of his sire have mainly lifted from obscurity, Sir G. C. Lewis came of a stock which, for centuries, has furnished the county and borough of Radnor with representatives in Parliament. The first baronet, Sir George's father, preserved to the latest day of his life

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the reputation for accomplishments, taste, and social pre-eminence with which he left the University for the outer world. Entering early on public life, he attained office under various chiefs, his highest official post being that of Secretary of the Treasury, though he probably is best known as the chief Poor-law Commissioner under what was called the New Poor-law. For his political services, "and those of his distinguished son," he received from Sir Robert Peel, just before that great statesman quitted office, the unsolicited honour of a Baronetcy,—a rank which, the Premier remarked, could not add to that which he had long since attained, of a Privy-Councillor. In some degree, the sire's leisure was, like that of his distinguished son, devoted to literature; but the result was, in his case, rather the formation of a first-rate modern library, and a thorough familiarity with the best and most readable English authors, with a polished gentleman's acquaintance with the ancient classics, than that deep fathoming of the wisdom of the times of yore, which was the chief characteristic of his son. Sir Frankland, if ever any father could, might have solaced his declining years with the application to the destined successor to his name and title, of Homer's words—

πατρὸς δ'γε πολλὸν ἀμείνων.

The son's education was begun at Chelsea, ripened at Eton, matured at Christ Church; which last seminary of sound learning he left with the highest honours the University could confer, and which rejoiced to exercise its earliest right of nominating "honorary students," in cases of great eminence, in favour of himself and one or two illustrious contemporaries. But, probably, to some hereditary tenacity of purpose, or zest for acquiring knowledge, or indomitable spirit of fathoming and mastering whatever he took in hand, rather than to any training of school or college, are Sir Cornewall Lewis's great gifts and acquirements to be ascribed. Reared in a circle which appreciated literature, he came to such eminence that he stood conspicuously foremost in it. And while his actual entrance into the political arena was but, as it were, the other day, it is curious, when one turns over the pages of such long-established books as the *Philological Museum*, to find how many years ago he was himself "*pars magna*," if not "*maxima*," of its contributors. That short-lived undertaking numbered among its leading writers, in 1832 and 1833, the brothers Hare, Connop Thirlwall, John Wordsworth, Sir Edmund Head, and others; but Sir G. C. Lewis must have taken the decided lead; for in Fynes Clinton's Memoirs we find him mentioned as calling on that learned scholar, with an introduction from Gaisford, to ask a literary contribution to the *Museum*. But this was not his first connexion with literature. In 1830, his joint translation of Müller's *Dorians* with Mr. Tuffnell, had marked him as one of the first appreciators in this country of the results of German criticism. In 1832, he published his *Remarks on the Use and Abuse of some Political Terms*—a work which showed him profoundly versed in philosophy and history, ancient as well as modern. Around us, as we write, lie later

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volumes, the dates of which tell how assiduously he clave to literary pursuits and inquiries. Here is one *On the Origin and Formation of the Romance Languages*, which has very lately been republished; there, an excellent *Glossary of Provincial Words used in Herefordshire* —a contribution to philological knowledge, which, by the way, is now out of print. A share, too, in the translation of K. O. Müller's *History of the Literature of Greece* is also due to him, though Dr. Donaldson's completion of that work renders of comparatively less account the early labours of his distinguished colleague. Between 1840 and 1852 came forth from his busy pen *Essays on the Government of Dependencies; On the Influence of Authority in Matters of Opinion;* and *On the Methods of Observation and Reasoning in Politics.* In all these, his thorough knowledge of the ancients is applied with soundness and precision to modern usage and practice. These are some of his published works of that period; but scattered fruits of his recondite learning, and vast study and observation, might be found anonymously stored in the Classical Journals, the Edinburgh Reviews, and of late years, in *Notes and Queries.* His inquiring spirit brooked no inaction. Exhausting one subject, he lost no time in devoting himself to another, packing carefully away in his capacious memory the results of varied wisdom and knowledge. In all that he wrote, the marked feature is his manifest aim at truth and indifference to popularity. Hence the seeming unattractiveness, the comparatively slow circulation of his writings. Though no modern has applied truer principles or more reliable criteria to history, few of his treatises have come to a second edition; while shallower writers, without a hundredth part of his research, have run through half-a-dozen. But this moved him little. He could not comprehend the pang which it brings to lesser men to see their books not rapidly bought up. Rather he possessed his soul in quiet confidence that truth must prevail, and that extended literary inquiry would affirm the soundness of his views. We have named above his chief works, the *Credibility of Early Roman History*, and the *Survey of the Astronomy of the Ancients.* On these mainly will rest his fame as a philosophical student and writer of history. The bare perusal of his preface to the former of them shows his thorough mastery of the whole subject, and of all that had been written upon it. Its purpose was to insist on adequate proof and evidence of fact, before the reception of a writer's historical system. He could not admit Niebuhr's exorbitant claims to "historical divination." His motto was, "He alone discovers who proves."

"Newton," he writes, "might have perceived, by a rapid and intuitive sagacity, the connexion between the fall of an apple and the attraction of the earth to the sun; but unless he could have demonstrated that connexion by arguments intelligible and satisfactory to the scientific world, his discovery would have been useless, except as a mere suggestion. In like manner, we may rejoice that the ingenuity and learning of Niebuhr should have enabled him to advance many novel hypotheses and conjectures respecting events in the early history, and respecting the form of the early constitution of Rome. But unless he can support those hypotheses by sufficient evidence, they are not entitled to our belief."—Pp. 14, 15.

And when Sir George Lewis had detected the flaw, he shrank not

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from pointing out how a faultless fabric should be constructed. He tests each layer, as it were, of history, down to the foundation, and accepts as sound all that has the warranty of contemporary, or nearly contemporary, records. A better antidote to the florid looseness of showy history-writers can scarcely be conceived. And though this work and the *Survey of the Astronomy of the Ancients* have provoked the remark that their author's mind was intensely sceptical, the fair answer to his antagonists is found in their inability to shake his positions or to upset his arguments. Candid to a degree, the very reverse of unfair, he had nothing to retract, nothing to unsay, nothing which he has not playfully reiterated, within a few months of his death, in his exquisitely facetious pamphlet, the HEYDIDDLEDIDDLE inscription, and the *Suggestions for the application of the Egyptological method to Modern History*. The humour displayed in his mock attempt to prove the former an Oscan or Iguvine inscription, the happy skit at the wordy waste of erudition which commentators too often lavish upon their mares'-nests,—the plausible identification of the word "diddle" with "dedit θελόντως," a natural blending of the two learned languages in Magna-Græcia,—all these manifest the author's keen perception of humbug, at the same time that they prove the grave, pale, reserved student no stranger to quiet fun. In his mock advocacy of the "Egyptological method," he completes, with the sharpened weapon of good-natured irony, his demolition in former works of false principles of hypothetical reconstruction of history. We cannot forbear transcribing one sample:—

"Our illustrations of the Egyptological method would be incomplete, if its application to some great building or monument were not exemplified. A fitting instance may be found in the churches of St. Peter's at Rome, and St. Paul's in London, which have so many features in common, that their separateness can scarcely be maintained. Both are built in the modern classical style; St. Peter's is in the chief city of Italy—St. Paul's in the metropolis of England. St. Peter's is near the Tiber—St. Paul's near the Thames. The architect of St. Paul's was Sir Christopher Wren, the contriver of St. Peter's was Michael Angelo Buonarotti. There is little difference between Christopher, the strong-limbed saint who carries the Saviour on his back, and the warlike archangel who spears the prostrate Satan: *wren*, a little bird, the favourite of heaven, is only a variation of a winged angel; while Buonarotti is manifestly only a decorative epithet for an architect who invents convenient means of transport for large masses of stone. Under the operation of this dissolving method, all separate individuality of these noted buildings disappears."

Sir George Lewis's *Dialogue on the Best Form of Government* has been so very recently the subject of reviews, that it is needless here to touch upon it. Enough has been said of him, as a philosophical inquirer and a writer of history. But it might admit of doubt whether his merits as a critical scholar were not of an even higher order than those which he possessed as a philosopher or historian. Proof of this occurs in an early number of the *Philological Museum* (vol. i. pp. 280-304), where, with wonderful skill and acumen, he collected, reconstructed, and set in order the fragments of the choliambic fabulist Babrius, scattered up and down the pages of the grammarians. Had he done nothing else in the way of criticism, this would have gone far

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to place him near the Elmsleys and Gaisfords of English scholarship; but, happily, thirteen years later, a MS. of Babrius was discovered in a monastery of Mount Athos; and this, with another containing ninety-five additional fables, eventually became the property of the British Museum. Sir George Lewis published the first part, which wonderfully confirmed his former criticisms, in 1846, from a Paris copy of the MS.; and subsequently, in 1859, the second part from the original MS. These volumes, especially the first, are models of critical editing. An exhaustive preface, concise and pertinent Latin notes, a carefully collected text, leave nothing more to be desired. There was indeed some question of the honesty of Menas, who sold the manuscript to the Museum trustees. Had this been capable of complete proof, it might have seemed damaging, in some slight measure, to the critical sagacity of Sir Cornewall. But the doubters have made little of their case, and the most considerable of them, Professor Conington, in his papers in the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Rhenish Museum*, failed, as we happen to know, to convince Sir G. C. Lewis that the MSS. in question were a forgery. Out of several letters on the subject, we may adduce a passage of one, which probably sets forth the true state of the case, as well as the writer's mature opinion :—

"The offer of M. Menas was very suspicious, and my first impression was that the MS. was a forgery. Upon careful examination, however, I satisfied myself that the undesigned coincidences with the prose fables were beyond the skill of any forger, and I have no doubt that his MS. was what it professed to be, viz. a copy from a genuine archetype. I was informed that a scholar at Paris had prepared an article impugning the genuineness of the MS., but that, upon further consideration, he was satisfied that he was wrong in his suspicions, and accordingly suppressed his article. If you will compare a dozen fables in the second part with the prose versions, you will, I think, find that any misgiving which you may entertain will be removed. The natural history of the Æsopian fables seems to me to afford a strong argument that this class of compositions was of indigenous Greek origin."

Death, alas! has interfered with the vindication of the genuineness of these fables, which, sooner or later, would doubtless have flowed from his pen. There was no waste in his labours; but when there appeared matter worthy of reply, he would not have been found wanting. Before passing from the subject of the Babrius fables, we would draw the attention of those who are as yet unacquainted with them, to the zoological articles by Sir G. C. Lewis, which are of constant recurrence in *Notes and Queries*. These, by themselves, would suffice to prove the vast erudition and observation of the man.

It has been the fashion of some, who knew him not, to speak of the subject of this memoir as incapable of wit or humour, a man of one joke, a dry, stiff writer, who could never be surprised into eloquence or liveliness. There never was a more complete misconception. The subjects of his writings were such as in their own nature seldom admitted of much enlivenment; but those who were fortunate enough to enjoy his society, could tell of the flow of anecdote, the stores of quaint, quiet humour, which he opened without effort. We have heard him run over all the happiest quotations from the classical poets,

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which statesmen have made in the House of Commons within his father's recollection and his own, and graphically surround them with the circumstances that called them forth, the portraits of the speakers, and their general effect upon the House. We have heard him discuss topics of general interest with playful irony, and quaintness of fancy inimitable. He talked with modern travellers on matters which bore upon his researches into ancient lore, without the slightest pedantry, but with unaffected learning.

And there was one thing which, beyond any other, seems to have struck those who had the great privilege of even occasional association with him, that he differed from most literary men in his perfect readiness to put all his learning at the disposal of any one who sought it. There was no particle of selfish reservation as to the vast stores of information which he had acquired. A clever tactician might have gathered from an evening in his company, body and material for a dozen leading articles on any subject which he chose to moot. Had there been any one to "Boswellize his talk," he might have recorded a thousand times more weighty, though a thousand times less wordy dicta, than flowed of old from the rolling mouth of Dr. Johnson. But there were two reasons why no one ever thought of this. His words were uttered so simply and unpretentiously, that it was not till his hearers had had time to think them over, that they were struck with their weight, wisdom, and depth. And, secondly, his removal was so sudden and so unexpected.

He has left an example, to all who follow in his favourite paths, of steady work, of fervent love of truth, of kindly cordial sympathy and fellowship with every worker in the field of literature. Many are the younger men yet left behind, to whom his example and encouragement have been an unspeakable stimulus to kindred exertion. One of these, the writer of these words, feels the loss in him of the most accessible of advisers, the frankest of literary men, the most unpatronizing of patrons.

J. D.

"Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit."

II.—THE EXPLOITS AND DEATH OF PATROCLUS.

ILIAD XVI.

So round the well-bank'd galleys they fought on:
And meanwhile stood Patroclus by the side
Of Prince Achilles, and adown his cheeks
Warm tears were falling, like a gloomy spring
That trickles in black drops down a sheer crag;
And at the sight Æacides was moved
To pity, and in wingèd words he spake:
"Why dost thou weep, Patroclus, like a girl,
A little girl, that by her mother's side
Runs, praying to be carried in her arms,
And clings fast to her skirts, and pulls her back,
And looks up tearfully into her face,

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Until she lift her up? so weepest thou.
Hast thou a matter to unfold to me
Or to the Myrmidons? or hast thou received
Tidings from Pthia, to the rest unknown?
Surely they say Menœtius is alive,
That Peleus lives among his Myrmidons:
Were they gone, we had cause indeed for tears.
Or grievest thou because the Greeks are falling
By the hollow ships thro' folly of their own?
Speak; let there be no secret between friends."
Patroclus, sighing deeply, made reply:
"Great son of Peleus, bravest of the brave,
Take not my sorrow ill, but bear with me,
When sorrows such are fall'n upon us all.
For, lo! our best are lying by the ships
Pierced with the spear, or smitten with the sword.
The spear hath pierced Tydeides Diomed;
Ulysses, the good lance, is struck with sword,
And Agamemnon; and with arrow-shaft
Eurypylus is wounded in the thigh:
Them now the cunning leeches have in hand,
To cure their wounds; but thou regardest not.
Forbid it, Heav'n, that I should ever feel
The wrath thou nursest stubbornly at heart.
Plague on thy valour, 'tis the curse of all;
Why, to what profit will thy life have been
To men of after-time, if thou refuse
Help to the host in this its hour of need?
Thetis was not thy mother, cruel one;
The knightly Peleus was no sire of thine;
That ruthless spirit was engenderèd
By crags precipitous and the cold grey sea.
But if a god-sign, or a warning word,
Told thee by Lady Thetis from great Zeus,
Be holding thee, then send me off forthwith,
And at my back a troop of Myrmidons,
To help the battle and redeem the day.
And let me buckle thine own armour on,
That, taking me for thee, the foe may quit
The field, and our wearied soldiers for a while
May rest; for scant's the breathing-time of war.
And coming fresh on spent and wearied men,
We 'll drive them from the ships and tented shore
Before our faces scurrying back to Troy."
So spake he, praying; simple one; nor thought
His prayer's fulfilment was to be his end.
And, deeply moved, Æacides replied:
"Princely Patroclus, what may thy words mean?
No god-sign wot I of, nor warning word
Told me by Lady Thetis from great Zeus;
But this is galling to the heart and soul,
Whene'er a man, from pride of place or might,
Chooseth to injure one, his peer in rank,
And rob him of his prize; and this it is
That angers me, and galls me to the heart.
The damsel, giv'n me by the general host,
Won by my spear around a well-wall'd town,
Her Agamemnon snatch'd away, as though
I were a hireling and without a name.
But by-gones shall be by-gones; nor indeed
Was it my purpose never to relent;

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I thought so long to cherish wrath, until
The din of battle should have reach'd my ships.
But put thou on mine armour, and lead forth
To battle-field my gallant Myrmidons;
For lo! the Trojans in a thick dark cloud
Hem in the fleet, victorious, and our men
Are push'd before them back on the sea-beach,
With but a narrow strip for footing left;
And the hearts of all in Troy are waxen bold:
No wonder; for they see not in their midst
My helmet glancing; quickly would they turn
Their backs, and choke the ditches with their dead,
If Agamemnon would make peace; but now
They bring their battle close around our camp.
No longer in the hands of Diomed
Rages the spear, to succour his own friends;
Nor do I hear king Agamemnon's voice
Out of his curs'd throat calling; but the cheer
Of Hector, the Man-slayer, to his men
Re-echoes all around, and the wide plain
Is ringing with their shouts of victory.
But get thee to the rescue of the fleet,
And lay on load, for fear the blazing flames
Consume our ships, and sever us from home.
But pay thou heed to what I bid thee now,
That thou may'st win me honour and respect
At the hands of the whole host, and they return
The damsel fair, with goodly gifts to boot:
When thou hast driv'n the enemy from the ships,
Come back again; and if the Thunder-god
Shall place before thine eyes a chance of fame,
Seek not apart from me to war with Troy:
That were to rob me of the fame my due:
And in the din of battle, when thy heart
Is lifted up within thee, and thine arm
Is busy dealing death, seek not to lead
The Myrmidons to Ilium, for fear
Immortal gods Olympian be within—
For Troy is right dear to the Archer-god—
But turn thee, when the ships are saved, and leave
These here to fight it out upon the plain;
For would to Zeus the Trojan host would fall
To the last man; and every Argive too;
And that of all, we twain were left alone
To batter down the sacred walls of Troy."
So spake they twain, the one unto the other:
But Ajax could no longer bide his ground
Beneath the press of battle; for his strength
Was giving way before the will of Zeus
And Trojan missiles; and his shining helm
Was rattling terribly beneath the blows
All round his temples, and the blows shower'd down
On the helm-lappets fitting to his face;
And with long carrying of the glittering shield
His arm was aching; but for all the press
Of battle, he held sturdily his own;
A fitful panting shook him, and the sweat
From every pore streamed down o'er every limb;
And scarcely could he breathe; and all around
Was trouble piled on trouble, toil on toil.

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And Hector, drawing near, smote with his sword
The spear of Ajax under the spear-head,
And clave the wood right through; and Ajax still
Went idly brandishing the headless shaft;
And far off fell the head with a ringing on the ground:
And Ajax shudder'd, for he saw that Zeus,
The Thunder-god, had set his face against
His battle, wishing victory to Troy.
So gat he from the mêlée, and the foe
Set fire to a swift ship, and momently
An inextinguishable flame uprose:
But while the galley was a-catching fire,
Achilles heard it, and with both his hands
He smote his thighs, and call'd unto his friend:
"Rise up, Sir Prince; methinks, among the ships,
I hear the roar of a consuming fire;
Ah! much I fear me lest the fleet be gone,
And with it gone all hope and chance of home:
Arm thou, while I go mustering our array."
So then Patroclus donn'd the shining mail:
And first about his shanks he put the greaves
Beautiful, equipp'd with silver ankle-clasps;
And next he put the corslet on his breast
Of chased work, glittering like a star; and round
His shoulders threw the silver-studded sword
Brazen, and the buckler big and strong;
And on his manly forehead put the helm
Well-wrought, with plume of horse-hair, and the plume
Fearfully o'erhead was nodding; and he grasp'd
Two massive spears that fitted to his palm—
Only the lance of Lord Æacides
He took not; heavy, big, and strong; that none
Could brandish save Æacides alone:
The spear of Pelian ash, that Cheirôn brought
His father from the peaks of Pelion
To be the death of heroes:—next he bade
The driver harness the swift steeds in haste,
Automedôn, whom after his great lord
He honour'd most, for of all comrades he
Was trustiest to stand the brunt of war.
And so the driver harness'd the swift steeds,
Xanthus and Balius, that ran swift as wind;
Them twain a Harpy bare to Zephyrus,
Podargè, as in meadow-land she grazed
Beside the flowing of Oceanus.
And in the traces at the side he put
The good steed Pedasus, taken when his lord
Had sack'd the city of Eëtiôn:
The horse, though coming of a mortal breed,
Harness'd, kept pace with an immortal pair.

. . . . .

And so Æacides went marshalling
His armèd Myrmidons from tent to tent:
And like as ravenous wolves, whose hearts are fill'd
With spirit inextinguishable, devour
Upon the mountains a great, antler'd stag;
And the jaws of all are reeking red with blood;
And in a troop they run, from a black spring
To lap the water with their long, thin tongues,
Belching out blood: the spirit in their breasts
Fearless, and their bellies tight and hard:
Just so the captains of the Myrmidons

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Round the good esquire of Æacides
Moved rapidly; and in among them stood
The prince, with words of cheer for steeds and men.
So, to its captain, when each company
Was set, Achilles gave a bidding stern:
"Forget not, Myrmidons, the threatening words
By the hollow ships ye utter'd against Troy,
When I was angry; and your blame of me:—
'Stern son of Peleus, surely upon gall
Thy mother suckled thee; hard-hearted man,
To keep thy comrades here against their will;
Nay, let us spread our sails again for home,
Seeing thy heart is set on bitterness.'
Such words ye spake to rouse me; but, behold!
The chance, ye long'd for, ready to your hands:
Go to, and with a stout heart meet the foe."
He spake, and the heart of every man was moved;
And the ranks closed in at hearing of his voice:
And just as when, with closely-fitting stones,
A builder builds the wall of a high house,
For shelter against wind; so closely pack'd
Were helmets and boss'd shields; and shield on shield
Was leaning, helm on helm, and man on man;
And the plumed helmets, with their shining cones,
Touch'd one another as the wearers' heads
Nodded; so close and serried the array.
And there were arming, far in front of all,
Two valiant soldiers, one in heart and soul,
Patroclus and Automedôn; and the chief
Went to his tent, and lifted up the lid
Of a great chest of curious workmanship,
Beautiful, which silver-footed Thetis placed
Aboard his ship, with tunics filling it,
And wind-proof cloaks and fleecy coverlets.
And therein was a goblet of wrought gold,
Whence never mortal had quaff'd sparkling wine,
Nor with it ever was libation pour'd
To god or goddess, saving Zeus alone.
And first he purified the cup with pitch,
And cleansed it in a running stream, and wash'd
His hands, and pour'd the wine forth, with his gaze
Turn'd heavenwards; and the Thunder-god gave heed:
"Pelasgian king, that dwellest far away;
Zeus, ruler of Dodona, land of storms,
Where dwell the Selli, oak-interpreters,
Barefooted eremites, whose roof 's the sky;
As thou didst hearken once unto my prayer,
To show me honour and afflict the host,
So hearken to my voice yet once again;
Though I shall linger by the hollow ships,
My comrade am I sending to the war
With many Myrmidons: grant, then, to him,
All-seeing Father, glory and renown;
And strengthen thou the heart within his breast,
That Hector, the Man-slayer, may perceive,
Whether my servant be a valiant knight
When fighting all alone, or whether then,
Then only, is his arm invincible,
When I go with him to the moil of war.
But when the foe is driven from the shore,
Let him return, with all his armour on,
Unscathed, and with his comrades safe and sound."

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So pray'd he; and the Councillor heard his prayer:
One-half he granted, and one-half denied;
Granted him that his friend should drive away
The battle from the ships, but granted not
His friend should living come from field again.
So, after the libation and the prayer,
He went in to his tent, and placed again
The goblet in the chest; and came and stood
At the tent-door; for still the chieftain long'd
To gaze upon the terrible pomp of war.
Meanwhile, with Prince Patroclus at their head,
The brass-clad Myrmidons in serried ranks
March'd, till they fell with fury on the foe.
And straightway went they pouring from the beach
Like to a swarm of wasps, who have their hive
By a road-side, whom children love to tease
And call in playful mockery out of doors;
Foolishly; others pay dearly for their play;
For if unwittingly a wayfaring man
Disturb the hive, the mettlesome little things
Fly out to guard their young ones and their home:
So sharp and keen the armèd Myrmidons
Went pouring from the beach; and in their midst
An inextinguishable cry uprose;
And to his men Patroclus cried aloud:
"Friends of Æacides, brave Myrmidons,
Use all your valour and be men this day,
So that we prove an honour to our lord,
The bravest soldier on this tented shore;
And that the captain of the host may see,
Atreides, what his folly was, to slight
The best and bravest of Achæan men."
He spake, and the heart of every man was moved;
And closely-serried on the foe they fell,
And all around them the re-echoing ships
Rang terribly with their loud battle-cry.
But when the brave son of Menœtius
With his good esquire, glittering in arms,
Appear'd, through all the Trojan host there ran
A trouble, and a wavering through the ranks;
For now they thought Achilles, swift o' foot,
Had ceased his wrath and quarrel with the king;
And each man timidly o'er his shoulder look'd
What road to flee by, when the worst were come.
And Prince Patroclus was the first to hurl,
Right where the throng was thickest, with the spear,
Behind the galley of a noble knight,
Protesilăus; and with the spear he struck
Pyræchmes, who from Amydôn had led
His horse-hair plumed Pæonians, from the stream
Of broadly-flowing Axius; with the spear
He struck him o' the right shoulder, and he fell
Down with a groan, face upwards, in the dust.
And all around him his Pæonian friends
Were troubled; for the prince had struck a fear
On every heart, for he, whom he had slain,
Was first and foremost warrior of them all.
And from the ships he drave the foe, and quench'd
The blazing fire, although a ship was still
Left smouldering; and the Trojan host was held
With fear and tumult, and the Greeks poured on
By the hollow ships; and terrible was the din.

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And just as when the Lightener Zeus draws back
The curtain of a cloud from the high cone
Of a great mountain, and the forelands sharp
And peaks and woods appear, and high in heaven
Bursts opening out the infinite serene;
So, from the galleys when the fire was driven,
The Grecian soldiers had a respite brief;
Tho' there was yet no slackening of the war,
For not as yet would Trojan soldiers deign
To turn their backs upon the foe; but still
Show'd a bold front, retreating step by step.
And, as the battle scatter'd, man slew man,
Among the chieftains; and Patroclus first
Smote Areïlycus, as he turn'd his back,
With the sharp spear, upon the thigh, and drave
The spear-head through and through, and the spear-point
Shatter'd the bone, and in the dust he fell
Face downwards; and Prince Menelăus struck
Thoas upon the breast, where it was left
Unguarded by the shield; and loosed his limbs.
And Amphiclus made onset, but betimes
Phyleides eyed him coming, and struck his leg
Above the knee, where the muscles of a man
Are thickest; and the tendons round the spear
Were sever'd; and the death-film closed his eyes.
And Nestor's son, Antilochus, with the spear
Struck at Atymnius, and thro' the neck
Drave the spear-point, and down before his face
He fell; but, angry at his brother's fall,
Came Maris, bounding on Antilochus,
And stood before the corse; but Thrasymêde,
Ere he could smite, hurl'd at him with the spear,
And struck him on the shoulder; and the point
Tare from the muscles all the upper arm,
And cut through to the bone, and down he fell
Heavily; and the death-film closed his eyes.
So went two brethren, by two brethren slain,
To Erebus; Sarpêdôn's trusty friends;
Good spearsmen, sons of Amisodarus;
The king, by whom was rear'd the monstrous form,
Chimæra, bane and dread of many men.
And Ajax Oïliades made a rush,
And seized, where he had tumbled in the throng,
Cleobûlus; and once more he loosed his strength,
Smiting him on the neck with his great sword,
Whose blade was reeking hot with blood; and down
Over his eyes came black Death and stern Fate.
And Peneleus and Lycôn onset made
On one another; for they both had hurl'd
Their spears and miss'd; so onset once again
Made they with sword; and Lycôn struck the cone
Of the crested helmet, and the sword-blade snapt
Off at the hilt; and Peneleus smote him
On the neck beneath the ear, and all the blade
Went in, and just a strip of skin was left,
And the head swung sideways, and the life-breath fled.
And Acamas, as he stepp'd into his car,
Pursuing with swift feet, Meriones
On the right shoulder struck; and from the car
He tumbled; and the death-film closed his eyes.

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And with the ruthless spear Idomeneus
Struck Erymas on the mouth; and the brass head
Pierced underneath the brain and clave the skull;
His teeth fell rattling out, and his eyes fill'd
With blood, and from the nostrils and the mouth
Blood gurgled; and the death-mist closed his eyes.
So the Greek chieftains slew, each one his man:
And just as wolves, away from the main flock,
Ravenous rush down upon the sheep and goats,
That careless shepherds have allow'd to stray
Upon the mountains; and forthwith the wolves
Rush down upon the timid bleating things:
So rush'd the Greeks upon the foe; and these
Forgat their manhood, and in tumult fled.
And the great Ajax evermore essay'd
To hurl at Hector of the brazen helm;
He with the bull's hide round his shoulders broad,
A skilful warrior, ever parried off
The whizzing shaft and clanging javelin.
He knew the battle was against him; still
He held his ground to succour his good friends.
And as a cloud athwart the face of heaven
Comes off Olympus out of a clear sky,
When Zeus prepares a storm; so from the ships
Ran they in fear and tumult; and once more
In disarray they sought to cross the trench;
But Hector, in his armour, the swift steeds
Carried away, and left the host behind,
Whom the deep trench held sore against their will.
And many a swift steed, clambering in the trench,
Snapt short the pole, and left its car behind:
And, bent on mischief, following at their heels,
Came Prince Patroclus cheering on his men;
And the scatter'd foe in fear and tumult fled,
Choking the ways; and clouds of dust rose high;
And away the trampling steeds at full stretch ran
City-wards from the ships and tented shore.
And where the throng seem'd thickest gathering,
Patroclus thither with a loud cry drave;
And men kept falling underneath the wheels
Prone, as the cars roll'd helter-skelter on;
And o'er the trench went bounding the swift steeds
Immortal, which the gods to Peleus gave;
Onwards they press'd; and the heart of him who drave
Beat fast with eagerness to overtake
Great Hector, and to strike him with the lance:
Him the swift steeds went carrying beyond reach.
And as at times upon an autumn day
The whole land darkens under a black storm,
When in a deluge Zeus pours down the rain;
Angry with men, that in the market-place
Pervert the ways of judgment, and despise
Righteousness, heeding not the wrath of Heaven;
And all the streams run swelling to the brim;
And jutting crags are torn and wash'd along
By torrents, that with thundering waters rush
Adown the mountains to the dark blue sea;
And the labour of men's hands is swept away:
Such the loud thundering rush of Trojan steeds.
And, when he had outstripp'd the foremost ranks,
Patroclus turn'd them backwards to the ships,

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Nor let them gain the town, but in between
The shore and wall and river evermore
Onset on onset made, and slew and slew;
First struck he Pronoüs with the shining spear
Upon the breast, just where a spot was left
Unguarded by the shield; and loosed his limbs;
Down he fell heavily: then rush'd the prince
On Thestôr, son of Enops, who the while
Sat in his well-wrought chariot, crouching down,
Bewilder'd, with the reins fall'n from his hands;
And the prince drew nigh, and struck him with the spear
On the right jaw, and drave it thro' his teeth,
And with the spear-shaft o'er the chariot-rim
Lifted him, as when on a jutting rock
One seated lifts to land from out the sea
A big fish with a line and glittering hook;
So from the chariot with the shining spear
He dragg'd him gaping; and the life-breath fled.
Next Eryläus, as he onset made,
Patroclus with a stone smote on the head
In the middle, and beneath the heavy helm
The skull was split in twain, and prone to earth
He fell; and the death-mist gather'd o'er his eyes.
Next Pyris, Echius, and Amphoterus,
Ipheus, Evippus, and Argëades,
Epaltes, Erymas, and Tlepolemus,
Son of Damastôr; these with spear he laid
One after other low on the green grass.
Meanwhile, Sarpêdôn, when he saw his friends,
Skirtless, breast-plated warriors, fall beneath
Patroclus' arm, with sharp words of reproach
Thus to the Lycian soldiers call'd aloud:
"Fie, Lycians; whither flee ye? there is nought
To fear; for I will go and meet this man,
To see who 'tis that lords it thus; for, lo!
Much evil hath he done the Trojan host,
And loosed the limbs of many and brave men."
He spake, and leapt in arms from car to earth;
And Prince Patroclus on the other side,
Seeing him, from his chariot sprang; and as
Two vultures, with curved talons and hook'd beaks,
Loud-screaming, fight upon a dizzy crag;
So with a yell rush'd they on one another:
And the son of crafty Kronos, Father Zeus,
From high Olympus gazed in pity down,
And thus to Hêrê spake, his sister-wife:
"Ah me! my heart is sore, that Fate should will
Sarpêdôn, whom I dearly love, to fall
Beneath the brave son of Menœtius;
My heart is verily perplex'd with doubt,
Whether to waft him off the battle-field,
And lodge him safe in the rich Lycian land,
Or let him fall beneath the hero's spear."
The large-eyed, queenly Hêrê answer'd him:
"Dread son of Kronos, what a word is this?
A mortal man, by Fate doom'd long ago,
Wouldst thou release from the stern bonds of death?
So do; but we are all of other mind.
Nay more—and ponder thou the words I say—
If thou shalt send Sarpêdôn to his home
Living, it may be other gods will choose

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To send their own sons from the din of war:
For round the walls of Troy immortal gods
Have many sons a-fighting, and this deed
Of thine will anger them exceedingly.
But if thou lovest him dearly, and thine heart
Is moved to pity, let him fall in fight
Before the brave son of Menœtius;
But, soon as e'er the breath of life is sped,
Send Death to carry him, and soothing Sleep,
Until they come to Lycia's broad land;
There shall he be with costly spice embalm'd;
And there his kinsfolk and his friends shall raise
A funeral mound and funeral monument;
For such the honours due unto the dead."
So spake she, and the Sire of gods and men
Assented; but upon the earth he rain'd
A shower of blood, in honour of his son,
Whom Prince Patroclus was to slay anon
In fertile Troy, far from his native land.
And when they had drawn nigh, the one to other,
Patroclus struck with spear a Lycian knight,
Brave Thrasymelus, esquire of the king;
Him smote he by the groin, and loosed his limbs.
Sarpêdôn next made onset with the spear,
But miss'd the prince, and struck the prince's steed
On the right shoulder; and good Pedasus
Groan'd, gasping painfully; and down he fell
In the dust, moaning; and the life-breath fled.
And the other twain stood off it, and the yoke
Creak'd, and the triple set of reins were all
In tangle, with the trace-horse in the dust.
But the good charioteer, Automedôn,
Quick saw the cure, and leapt down from his car,
And, drawing the sharp sword from his stout thigh,
Sever'd the reins, and let the trace-horse free.
And the others righted, and drew tight the reins,
And once again closed in the deadly fray.
So then Sarpêdôn miss'd him with the spear,
And over the left shoulder of his foe
The shaft sped idly; and Patroclus rush'd
Yet once more on Sarpêdôn with the spear;
Nor sped the weapon bootlessly, but struck
The vessels that close round the swelling heart.
And he fell, as when an oak or poplar falls,
Or stately pine, which on a mountain side
A carpenter, with newly-sharpen'd axe,
Cuts down to be the tall mast of a ship;
So stretch'd at length before the car he lay
Roaring, and clutching at the bloody dust:
And as among the trailing-footed herds
A prowling lion pounces on a bull,
A tawny bull, stout-hearted, and it dies
Loud-bellowing underneath the lion's jaws;
So fell the leader of the Lycian spears
Beneath the brave son of Menœtius,
And, dying, eagerly call'd to his friend:
"Good Glaucus, now, if ever, hast thou need
To prove thyself a spearsman stout of heart;
Seek now hard blows, if thou art warrior true;
But first, go, pass along the lines, and call
The Lycian chiefs to fight around their king;

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And then fight round me with thine own right hand;
For all thy life long shall I be to thee
A shame and a down-casting of the eyes,
If on the tented shore, where I am fallen,
Achæan hands shall strip me of mine arms:
Quick, quick; begone; call hither my whole host."
As thus he spake, down settled death upon
His eyes and nostrils; and the conqueror came,
And, stamping on his breast, pull'd from the wound
The spear; and sense and feeling followed it;
At one wrench pull'd he out life-breath and spear.
Meanwhile, his Myrmidons held back the steeds,
Eager to fly, because the car behind
They felt was empty of the princes twain.
Now at the hearing of Sarpêdôn's words
Glaucus was sorely troubled, and his heart
Was stirred, because he could not rescue bring;
For wearily his arm ached from the wound,
That Teucer's arrow gave him, as he rushed
On Troy, to help his comrades in their need:
And thus in prayer he called the Archer-god:
"O king, that somewhere in rich Lycian land
Art dwelling, or in Troy; hear thou my prayer;
For thine ears everywhere can hear a man
Sorrowing, as I am sorrowing even now.
This is a grievous wound I have, for lo! my hand
Is pierced with anguish, and I cannot stanch
The flowing blood, and my shoulder is weighed down;
Nor have I strength to wield a spear, nor stand
In battle; and our bravest and our best
Is fallen, Sarpêdôn, son of Zeus; for Zeus
Deigns not to succour even his own sons.
But, Phœbus, king, heal thou my grievous wound;
Assuage the anguish; give me strength, that I
May call the Lycian warriors to the fray,
And with mine own hand fight around the dead."
So pray'd he, and Apollo heard his prayer;
And stay'd the pain, and from the grievous wound
Stanch'd the black blood, and gave his spirit cheer.
And the man was glad, for in his heart he knew,
That the great god had hearken'd to his prayer.
And first he went along the lines, and call'd
The Lycian chiefs to fight around their king;
Then went he with long strides for Trojan help,
Princely Agênor and Polydamas,
Æneas, and Hector of the brazen helm;
And standing by them he spake wingèd words:
"Lo! Hector, thou forgettest utterly
Thine allies, who for thy sake far away
From home and fatherland are perishing;
Seeing thou bring'st no succour to their need.
Sarpêdôn, leader of the Lycian spears,
Lies low, who was to Lycia heretofore
A safeguard by his judgments and his might.
Him hath the brazen god of war laid low
Beneath the brave son of Menœtius.
Then, friends, for shame's sake to the rescue come,
For fear the Myrmidons strip off his arms,
And treat the corse with insult, in revenge
For all their Grecian comrades that we slew,
We Lycians by the swift ships with our spears."

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So spake he; and a grief unquenchable
Came on the Trojan men from head to foot,
A grief, such as perforce will have its way:
For he had been a safeguard unto Troy,
Although a stranger-born; and he had brought
From Lycia many warriors to the field,
Himself the best and bravest of them all.
So right upon the foe with a good will
They charged; and Hector, as was e'er his wont,
Went leading, to revenge his fallen friend.
And the son stout-hearted of Menœtius,
Stirr'd up by th' Achæan host, and first address'd
The two Ajaces, eager of themselves:
"Ajaces, come ye to the rescue now,
With all your wonted valour; ay, and more:
He, that was first to leap into the trench,
Lies low, Sarpêdôn: O bethink ye, friends,
If we could but pay outrage to the corse,
And strip the arms, and lay low with our spears
His friends, one after other, as they came on!"
He spake; but they were eager of themselves:
So when the battles on both sides were form'd,
Trojans and Lycians, Myrmidons and Greeks,
They closed around the dead, and loud uprose
The terrible war-cry and the clang of arms;
And Zeus stretch'd a thick darkness o'er the field,
To make the mêlée deadly round his son.
First, the quick-glancing Greeks gave way before
The Trojans; for among them there had fall'n
A man, not meanest he of Myrmidons,
Epeigeus, princely son of Agaclês,
Who in fair-situate Budêum dwelt
Aforetime; but in those days he had slain
A noble kinsman, and for refuge fled
To Peleus and his silver-footed Queen.
And they had sent him with their conquering son
To Ilium, rich in steeds, and Trojan war.
But now, as he laid hands upon the corse,
The knightly Hector smote him with a stone
On the head; and underneath the heavy helm
The skull was split, and prone upon the corse
He tumbled; and the death-mist glazed his eyes.
And at his fall, upon Patroclus came
Sorrow, and thro' the foremost ranks he rush'd
Right on: and as a swift hawk, swooping down,
Sets fluttering the starlings and the daws;
So straight for Lycian and Trojan hosts
He rush'd on, to revenge his comrade's fall.
At the first onset with a stone he struck
Sthenelaüs, brave son of Ithæmenês,
Upon the neck, and brake the tendons through;
And Hector and the foremost ranks drew back:
And just the length of a long javelin's cast,
Flung by a man in sport upon the green,
Or by an enemy in fight; so far
Drew back the Trojans, and the Greeks press'd on.
And Glaucus, leader of the Lycian spears,
Turn'd first, and slew stout-hearted Bathyclês,
The son of Chalcôn, who in Hellas dwelt,
In wealth and glory first of Myrmidons.
For Glaucus, as the other press'd him sore,

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Turn'd suddenly, and smote him with the spear
Upon the breast, and down to earth he fell
Heavily; and a cloud of sorrow came
Upon the Achæans, for a goodly man
Had fallen; and the Trojan host took cheer,
And crowded round the corse; nor did the Greeks
Forget their manhood, but came charging on.
And then Merionês slew a Trojan knight,
Laogonus, Onêtor's valiant son,
The priestly servant of Idæan Zeus,
And honoured by the people as a god.
Him smote he underneath the jaw and ear,
And swiftly sped the life-breath from his limbs,
And the dull death-film gather'd o'er his eyes.
And Prince Æneas hurl'd the brazen spear,
In hopes to strike Merionês, as he came
Beneath the cover of his shield; but he
Perceived the spear a-coming, and dipp'd down
Before it, and the long lance stuck i' the ground
Behind him; and the handle of the shaft
Went shaking; and the shaking died away.
So went to earth in vain the quivering spear
Of Prince Æneas, hurl'd from a strong hand.
And moved to anger Prince Æneas spake:
"For all thou art so nimble in the dance,
Methinks, Merionês, thy dancing days
Were at an end, had yon good lance struck home."
To him in answer spake Merionês:
"Think not, Sir Prince, for all thou art so brave,
To quench the might of all that cross thy path
In battle; for thou art but mortal man.
Yea, could I fairly strike thee with my spear,
For all thy valour and thy pride of heart,
Maybe, thou'dst give me glory, and thy soul
To Pluto, the king-charioteer below."
He spake: and thus Patroclus in rebuke:
"Sirrah! dost thou, a soldier, babble thus?
Good friend, we shall not frighten from the corse
The foe with biting words; nay, many an one
Must first be lying on his bed of earth:
Hands are for war, friend, and for council, words;
Wherefore, cut short thy words, and fight with hand."
He spake; and led the way; and close behind
Merionês went following; and as when
Hewers of wood are in a mountain-glade
A-felling timber, and the noise is heard
Afar off, so from the wide earth uprose
The din of brazen helm and tough bull-hide,
And blows from swords and double-handed spears.
Then it had needed sharp eyes in a man,
To tell the body of the Lycian king,
For it was cover'd all from head to foot
With spears and javelins and dust and blood.
And they kept swarming round the corse, as flies
In a dairy buzz around the full milk-pails,
In spring-time, when the vessels run with milk;
So they kept swarming round the corse: but Zeus
Never one moment turn'd his shining eyes
From the stern battle, but kept gazing down,
And in his heart was pondering the while,
Whether to let great Hector there and then,

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Over the body of the Lycian king,
Lay low Patroclus, and strip off his arms;
Or whether to spread carnage wider still.
And this seem'd best to him a-pondering,
That the good esquire of Æacidês
Should drive back Hector of the glancing helm
Once more, and take the lives of many men.
And first in Hector he stirr'd coward fear;
And Hector gat upon his car and fled,
And call'd to all the Trojan host to flee;
For he knew well the sacred will of Zeus.
Then too the gallant Lycians turn'd and fled,
All, when they saw their king pierced to the heart,
In a great heap of slain; for over him
Many and many a man had fall'n, when Zeus
Was spreading wide and wider the stern strife.
Then cloud-compelling Zeus to Phœbus spake:
"Go, son, and drag Sarpêdôn from the darts,
And wipe the black blood off, and carry him
Afar, and bathe him in some running stream,
And then anoint him with ambrosia,
And in immortal raiment shroud his limbs;
Then send him by swift convoy, to be borne
By Sleep and Death, twin brethren, who forthwith
Shall lay him in broad Lycia's wealthy land;
There with rich spices shall he be embalm'd,
And o'er him shall his friends and kinsfolk raise
A funeral mound with funeral monument;
For such the honours due unto the dead."
He spake; the son obey'd his Sire, and went
From the peaks of Ida down into the din
Of battle, and from underneath the spears
He raised the Lycian king, and carried him
Afar, and bathed him in a running stream,
And with ambrosia anointed him,
And in immortal raiment wrapped his limbs;
Then gave him to swift convoy to be borne,
To Sleep and Death, twin brethren, who forthwith
In wealthy Lycia laid him down to rest.
And, cheering on the driver and the steeds,
Patroclus after the retreating foe
Went following with a fatal recklessness:
Fool! had he kept the counsel of his friend,
He had return'd safe to the hollow ships.
But Zeus is ever stronger-will'd than man;
He maketh even a brave man to fear,
And from the victor taketh victory,
Easily; though himself have urged him on;
So now 'twas Zeus that urged the hero on.
Then who was first, and who was last to fall
Beneath thine arm, Patroclus, when the gods
Had summon'd thee to thy last battle-field?
Adrastus, Echeclus, and Autonoüs,
Epistôr, Melanippus, and Perimus,
Pylartês, Elasus, and Mulius;
All these he slew; the others fled amain.
Then maybe underneath the hero's hands
The Greeks had taken the high walls of Troy,
Such havoc was he spreading with his spear,
But that Apollo on the battlements
Stood, wroth with him and succouring the foe:

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Thrice mounted he an angle of the wall;
Thrice the god push'd him back again, and struck
The shining shield with his immortal hands.
But when he made fourth onset furiously,
Angrily chiding spake the Archer-god:
"Get back, Sir Prince, it is not given by Fate
To thee to sack the city of proud Troy,
Nor to the man who is thy better far."
So spake Apollo, and the prince drew back,
Dreading the anger of the Archer-god.
And Hector meanwhile held his trampling steeds
By the Skæan gates, divided in his thoughts,
Whether to drive once more into the din,
Or call the host to muster at the wall.
As thus he ponder'd, by his side there stood
Phœbus, in form like one of his own kin,
The son of Dymas, brother of Hecuba,
Asius, a lusty man and bold, who dwelt
On the banks of Phrygian Sangarius.
Like him in visage, spake the Archer-god:
"Fie, Hector, fie! why quittest thou the field?
Ah! would to Heaven I could exchange with thee
Prowess for prowess! bitterly shouldst thou rue
This coward shirking of the toils of war.
But come, and on Patroclus drive thy steeds;
It may be that the Archer-god will give
Thee glory, and the knight fall to thy spear."
He spake; and back again into the moil
Withdrew; and Hector bade Kebrionês
Lash the swift steeds to battle; and the god,
Entering amid the throng of warriors, stirr'd
Confusion in the Argive host, but gave
Glory to Hector and the Trojan arms.
And Hector heeded not the rest, nor cared
To strip them of their armour, but against
Patroclus only drave his trampling steeds;
And on the other side Patroclus leapt
Down from his chariot to the ground; a spear
In his left hand, and in his right a stone,
Sparkling and jagg'd, that fitted to his hand;
And steadying himself to aim, he hurl'd
The stone; nor swerved it far off from a man,
Nor idly sped, but struck the charioteer
Right on the forehead, as he held the reins.
And both his eyebrows it smash'd into one,
And crush'd the skull in, and the eyeballs fell
At the man's feet, and from the well-wrought car
Diving he tumbled, and the life-breath fled;
And scoffingly over him Patroclus spake:
"Gods! what a nimble fellow; he dives well:
Methinks, were he upon the teeming deep,
This fellow, a pearl-diver, would make out
A goodly living, and dive over-board,
Though seas were ne'er so stormy, if so be
He dives from car so nimbly on dry ground:
Aye; 'tis a craft they understand in Troy."
He spake, and rush'd upon Kebrionês,
Like a bounding lion, which amid the stalls
A-scattering havoc gets a mortal wound,
But fights on, fierce and fearless, to the last;
So on Kebrionês he rush'd furiously.

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And as two lions on the mountains fight
Over a dead hind, wild and hungry both,
So over the dead body fought they twain,
Good knights, Patroclus and Priamidês;
And Hector gripp'd the body by the head,
Patroclus by the feet, and all the rest,
Trojans and Greeks, join'd battle fierce and keen.
And just as warring winds together vie
In mountain-glen to tear down a deep wood
Of oak and ash and long-leaved cornel-tree,
And fling from one to other the long boughs
Thundering, 'mid the crash of breaking wood;
So rush'd on one another the two hosts,
Trojans and Greeks, and death was dealt apace,
And no man flinch'd, or had one thought of fear.
And round the body of Kebrionês
Many and many a sharp spear struck home,
And many a wing'd shaft whizzing from the string,
And many a big stone crash'd down upon shields
Of warriors fighting round him; and he lay
Stretch'd out at full length in the whirling dust.
So that good charioteer, Kebrionês,
To battle-field drave chariot never more.
And all the while the sun was high in heaven,
So long went spears a-flying to and fro,
Arrows and spears, and people fell apace;
But when the sun was going down, what time
The wearied ox is loosen'd from the plough,
Then more and more the Grecian host prevail'd,
And dragg'd the corse from underneath the spears
And Trojan battle, and stripp'd off the arms.
Then made Patroclus onset on the foe;
Thrice made he onset, like the god of war,
With a terrible shout, and thrice he slew nine men.
But when he made fourth onset, like a god,
Then was it plain the fatal end drew nigh;
For in the din of battle Phœbus came
Terrible, unperceived amid the throng;
Phœbus-Apollo, shrouded in thick mist:
And stood behind, and smote the hero's back
And shoulders with the flat palm of his hand;
His brain reel'd giddily, and his eyes flash'd fire:
And Phœbus struck the helmet off his head,
And rolling underneath the horses' feet
The vizor'd helmet rattled; and his hair
Was clotted all with dust and gouts of blood—
That crested helm had ne'er before been soil'd
With dust, but it had guarded well the head,
The beautiful head of lord Æacidês;
But now Zeus gave the helm into the hands
Of Hector, for the wearer's end drew nigh—
And the long spear was shiver'd in his hands,
Big, heavy, tough, and tipp'd with shining brass;
And from his shoulders fell upon the ground
The belted shield, that reach'd from head to foot;
And Phœbus loosed the fastenings of his mail;
And his limbs totter'd, and his senses reel'd,
And he stood still, lost in bewilderment.
Then came behind him a Dardanian knight,
Panthoïdês Euphorbus, first of youths
With lance or chariot, or in speed of foot;

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That day had he dismounted twenty men,
Although his chariot had been first a-field,
Himself a novice in the art of war:
He came behind, and struck him with the spear
Right in betwixt the shoulders and the back;
He was the first to strike him; with a wound
Not mortal; and then pulling out the spear
Ran back again and mingled with the throng,
Nor dared to meet the hero face to face
In combat, tho' the hero was unarmed.
So now Patroclus, spent and broken down
With the spear-thrust and smiting of the god,
Drew back for safety in among his friends.
And Hector, when he saw the noble knight
Retreating, wounded with the spear, drew nigh
Amid the throng, and underneath the ribs
Pierced him, and drave the spear-head through and through.
Down fell he heavily, and thro' all the host
Ran fear and trouble as the hero fell.
And as when in among the mountain-peaks
A lion and a wild-boar, thirsting both,
Join battle round about a little spring;
And, gasping, the wild-boar gives way at length
Before the lion: so it fared with thee,
Patroclus, brave son of Menœtius;
For, as thine arm was dealing death around,
Hector Priamidês slew thee with his spear,
And boasting over thee spake wingèd words:
"Ah! thou hadst thought to sack my native Troy,
Patroclus, and her women-folk to take
Prisoners to Pthia in the hollow ships:
Fool! there were standing between thee and them
Hector's swift horses ready for the fray;
For I of Trojan warriors am first
And foremost, and my spear is their defence.
On thee the vultures here shall have their meal:
Poor soul; it seems, for all he is so brave,
Thy princely friend hath stood thee in poor stead:
And yet, methinks, he will have counsell'd thee
On this wise, as thou camest to the war—
See thou return not to the hollow ships,
Before the Slayer's mail upon his breast
Be split in twain and dabbled with his blood—
He spake, and thou wert simple to believe."
Patroclus, faintly breathing, made reply:
"Boast, Hector; it is now thine hour of pride:
Zeus, son of Kronos, and the Archer-god
Gave victory to thee, and laid me low,
Easily; it was they who took the arms
From off my shoulders; but if twenty men
The like of thee had barr'd my path, they all,
All then and there had fallen beneath my spear:
But Fate and the son of Letô laid me low;
Of men, Euphorbus; and thou comest third
To strip me of mine arms—but hearken thou,
And ponder well the words I have to say:
For thee too life is ebbing very fast;
Beside thee even now stand Death and Fate;
The blow is dealt by Lord Æacidês."
He spake; the death-film gather'd o'er his eyes,
And the soul to Hadês from the body sped,

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Mourning its fate, and loth to leave behind
Beauty and vigour, and manhood in its prime.
And over the dead hero Hector spake:
"Why prophesy a speedy death to me,
Patroclus? It may be, Æacidês,
Son of the fair-hair'd goddess of the sea,
Shall fall the first, and fall beneath my spear."
He spake, and stamping on the dead man's breast,
Pull'd out the brazen spear-head from the wound,
And push'd the corse face-upwards to the ground;
And straightway, spear in hand, went following
The driver of Achilles, swift of foot,
Automedôn, in eagerness to slay;
Him the swift steeds went carrying beyond reach,
Immortal, which the gods to Peleus gave.

D'Arcy W. Thompson.

III.—PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

[Second Article.]

In resuming this subject it seems desirable, before looking into the actual working of the system described in a previous number of this Journal, to present the reader with a few statistical returns which will enable him to judge how deeply it penetrates, and how wide the surface it covers.

The population of Massachusetts, as before mentioned, is 1,231,022, and the number of towns, 334. Now, there are altogether 4561 public schools in the State, and the average attendance (1860-61) is, in summer, 166,714, and in winter, 175,035. The whole number of children between the ages of five and fifteen is 231,480. It appears, then, that the average attendance in the public schools amounts to 74 per cent. of the whole number of children between the ages of five and fifteen, and to about one in seven of the whole population. But then to this estimate we must add, in order to ascertain the average number of children constantly under education in the State, not only those *under* five years of age (about 10,000) and those *above* fifteen years of age (about 24,900) in attendance at the public schools, but also those who are in course of education at the *incorporated* and *private academies*. The number of these *academies* is said to be 701, and the estimated average attendance 19,826. It is a significant fact, by the way, that the number of private schools has decreased by about 120 during the last ten years.

Another item of interest in this review is the number of teachers employed in the public schools. That number was, in 1861, 7414, and it deserves to be noticed that of these 5841 were females, and only 1573 males, so decided is the preponderance of the gentler sex in the field of education in Massachusetts.

It is difficult to ascertain from the returns and reports what proportion of the whole number of teachers have received a normal school

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training. There have, however, been about 4830 teachers who have been, for a longer or shorter time, in attendance at all the normal schools together since the year 1839, when that at Framingham, the first established of the four, was founded. Moreover, the number of teachers sent out by the colleges annually does not exceed 100. Hence it may be inferred that a good deal of the work of education in the Commonwealth is still done by untrained teachers.

The question of salary is one which will have interest for schoolmasters and schoolmistresses at home. The general average given in the returns is nearly $48 monthly (including board) for masters, and about $20 for mistresses, *i.e.*, at the rate of £120 and £50 per annum respectively. It must be remembered, however, that this average includes teachers and assistant-teachers, in middle and high as well as in primary schools. English national schoolmasters, therefore, distrustful of the future of education at home under the Revised Code, must not at once conclude that there is a fine opening in Massachusetts. Taking an example at hazard, I find that in the city of Worcester, where there are about twenty primary schools, the head-teachers, who are all females, have each a salary of $300 (a little more than £60) yearly. They are, therefore, somewhat better paid than the average of our national schoolmistresses, but then they live in a country where the daily wages of a labourer are six shillings.

One more exhibition of figures may be permitted. The aggregate expended on public schools for salaries and general management, amounted in 1860-61 to $1,612,823 (£330,000 nearly); the sum raised by taxation for each child between five and fifteen years of age was $6·41.

And now we may pass on to regard our subject in points of view a little more interesting than the plain facts which, so far, it has been necessary to state without embellishment and without much comment, and a little more lively than the sober figures which have been marshalled in that primeval nudity of which arithmetic, unlike humanity, has not learnt to be ashamed.

How does the system work? What do we discover when we take a closer look at the play and action of all that educational machinery? The *ideal* of a Massachusetts school is excellent. The reports speak of substantial and well-adapted buildings, of grounds tastefully laid out and planted with a view to communicate to the pupils an instinct of refinement and order. There are separate class-rooms and a common hall. The cumbersome desks and uneasy forms of the English school are superseded in favour of a separate desk and a comfortable seat for each pupil. Carvings and inscriptions of names, and other disfigurements incident to schoolrooms, are forbidden. This is the *ideal;* it is what the committees are encouraged to aim at and bring about; what some committees, no doubt, in some favoured localities, have come tolerably near realizing. But Massachusetts, though a highly enlightened State, is not an educational Utopia. The *real* is at some distance still from the *ideal.* Listen to the confession of the school committee of Cummington, in Hampshire County. "Our schoolhouses are notori-

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ously bad; . . . . not one of them is what a schoolhouse ought to be. Several of them are miserable, dilapidated structures; patched, hacked, and open, that the winds of winter enter through a thousand crevices." Other committees make similar complaints, but space will not allow of quotations. Nevertheless it may be taken for granted that if the *ideal* has only been reached in a minority of cases, the movement is going on in the right direction.

With regard to school organization, the feeling is strongly in favour of massing large numbers of children together in one school and under one principal teacher. When this is done, the children are classified according to age and attainment, and each class is marshalled in its own class-room, under its own special teacher, whose whole time and attention are devoted to them. In this way fifty or sixty children are taught together, without any loss of power or time, and each child, as he rises from grade to grade in the school, passes under the care of a fresh instructor.

Under such an arrangement, the duty of the principal teacher resolves itself very much into general superintendence, inspection, and examination of the classes, though he often has a section of his own to instruct, with the aid of an assistant. The school committees (it has been said) are expected to visit and also to examine the schools. This they seem, in a great many cases, to do very conscientiously and efficiently. It is unquestionably an exciting day for the pupils when the managers come, in all their official importance, to take stock of the intellectual growth of the rising generation of their township. In some cases printed papers are set. The scholars are allowed to write the answers on their slates in the first instance, but must copy them upon paper, and in that guise deliver them to the examiners. All proper care is taken to prevent any unfairness. I have before me papers set by the School Committee of Salem. The subjects are arithmetic, grammar, spelling, history, and geography. The average age of the children examined (the first and second classes of seven middle and grammar schools) was thirteen years three months. The questions are very fairly adapted, certainly not too easy for ordinary candidates of that age. The result of the examination shows that 58 per cent. of the answers given by all the children in all the studies were correct.

Some of the committees complain in their reports that the teaching is too mechanical, and that the memory is more cultivated than the other faculties. There does, indeed, seem to be a tendency to give too much prominence to learning by heart in some of the schools. Cases are mentioned, for instance, where the history lesson, instead of being a lively, graphic reproduction of some scene of the past, or a lucid exposition of some great law of politics, is merely the painful committing to memory and recitation of some arid paragraph of a text-book, spiritless as a mercantile invoice or auctioneer's catalogue. Again, one lights upon complaints that thoroughness in the elementary subjects is sometimes sacrificed to the display of imperfect and superficial knowledge of more advanced studies. The committees, however, seem fully alive to the importance of those three branches

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of learning, to which our Revised Code has given such dignity and weight. On the accomplishment of reading especially great stress is laid. In some cases, persons interested in education have offered prizes for good reading, to be competed for by the students in the Normal College. A Mr. Lee of Boston, for example, gave for three years the sum of $300 dollars to be applied in this way. This hint might be taken with advantage by some of the friends of education in England.

It would, of course, be a great mistake to draw general conclusions too freely from occasional remarks and statements scattered through the school reports. There are, however, three or four very important points in reference to which the allusions are so numerous, and the testimony so general, that we may safely regard them as distinctive features in the working of the system. In the first place, a great deal is said by most of the school committees in their reports with respect to irregularity of attendance. This may appear strange, when we remember that attendance is by the State laws made compulsory. There is no doubt, however, of the fact. Hear, for instance, what is said by Mr. Cummings, who is, or was, superintendent of the Gloucester Public Schools :—

"The subject of irregular attendance has been the burden of many school reports, and yet it is a topic *which continually stands as a reproach to our school system.* This is a subject which has received a large share of the attention of school committees in every community; but we are yet to learn of the remedy for the evil."

The following extracts from various school reports will confirm what Mr. Cummings says :—

"Another great evil, which prevails quite extensively in all the schools, is the irregular attendance of the scholars. We learn from the registers that the aggregate average attendance for the past year was something less than three-fourths of the whole number of scholars belonging to the schools."—*Montgomery Report.*

"Again your committee allude to the *chronic evils of absence and tardy attendance;* and however hopeless it may appear to bring these subjects before you, duty requires that some notice should be taken of them in reviewing the condition of the schools."—*Sandwich Report.*

"Irregular attendance is the greatest obstacle to the gradual elevation of our schools that they have to contend with, and no other excellence can compensate for it."—*Hamilton Report.*

"If an opportunity occurs for a boy to earn a few cents a day, he is kept out of school for days or weeks. . . . . Various instances of this kind are constantly occurring in most of our schools, which carry to the minds of your committee the painful conviction, that the advantages provided by the town and the State are not appreciated at their proper value."—*Concord Report.*

The remedy by which this evil is met is the enactment of bye-laws against truancy.

The tenor of such a law, passed by the town of North Andover, is as follows :—

Any child who does not attend school for twelve weeks in a year, or who absents himself from school without the knowledge of his teacher or parent, is deemed a truant. In dealing with his case, the first offence is left to be treated by the teacher at his discretion; the

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second is reported to the parent or guardian; if the child offends a third time, information is given to the truant-officer of the district, who thereupon requires the parent or guardian to give pledges for the restraint of the child; and if this is not done, the penalty imposed by the State laws is enforced, or, in default of payment, the child is committed to a reformatory. To carry out the operation of this law, what is called a truant-officer is appointed, whose duty it is to look after absentees, to inquire into causes of absence, and to call to account all children found idling about the roads or fields.

But somehow, after all, the meshes of the law are not close enough to catch and keep all who come within the sweep of the net. "The city ordinance in relation to truant children and absentees from school (say the Roxbury School Committee) is of little avail in diminishing the number of idle, vicious boys about our streets."

Truancy laws, and laws to enforce attendance on school, are not altogether unlike the sumptuary laws of former times in this country; they have an awkward tendency to become dead-letters.

There is another evil which may possibly have a little to do with the irregularity just referred to, and which is in itself still more serious. It is the very frequent change of teachers to which most of the schools appear to be subject. One report complains that its school session seldom begins with the teacher of the preceding one. Another declares that in the town schools, twenty in number, twelve changes had taken place in the staff in the course of one year. There are several causes of this. Parents are rather disposed to interfere with the discipline, and misunderstandings on this account are not uncommon. Young persons, again, are very much in the habit of taking up teaching as a temporary occupation, to be abandoned as soon as an opening of any kind offers. But the chief cause of the evil is to be found in the mode in which it has been common to engage the services of the teachers. The schools have two sessions in the year, the *winter* and the *summer* session. The school committees receive applications for the office of teacher, and after making a selection from among the candidates, examine more or less thoroughly that one whom they prefer, and if satisfied with his qualifications, give him a certificate of approval, and engage him. Now, this engagement is often made for the session only; and hence, at its close, the teacher very probably takes his departure, and tries his fortune in some other locality. This practice has tended to produce wandering, unsettled habits amongst teachers, and must have materially interfered with the progress of the schools. The school committees seem alive to the impolicy of the plan, and are endeavouring to make the relation between teacher and school more permanent.

The following remarks on the social position of the teacher, taken from the *Chelsea School Report*, are so pertinent to discussions that have arisen in this country, that they may very aptly be quoted:—

"It is frequently urged by teachers that teaching should be recognised by the community as one of the learned *professions*. We think the time not far distant, when the recognition asked for may be granted. It is not, as we believe,

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for the want of a proper estimate by the public of the dignity and essential nobility of the art of teaching, that it is not already ranked as a profession. Undoubtedly the general opinion is that the office of a teacher of children and youth, from its nature, and the moulding influences for good or evil which may spring from it, is not at all of secondary but of the highest consequence. A humble primary teacher may, in the discharge of this office, exert a larger, deeper, and more lasting power, if the extent of power be rigidly estimated, than a college of surgeons, a full court of lawyers, or a council of divines. When teachers shall have so educated themselves in all the requirements of teaching, when their devotion to the *art* of educating others shall rise above their devotion to the money it may bring, or its individual advantages; when, if we may so speak, the genius of teaching shall have been interwoven into the texture of their lives, rather than merely hung round them as a covering—they will really be professors, and their business a profession to be named with the highest. Before teachers can attain such a position in the community, many now ranked among them must be stricken from the list."

Two more points require notice and comment. One is the subject of physical training. This is apparently beginning to excite very considerable interest amongst school-managers; and, if all be true that is said in the reports with reference to physical degeneracy in New England, it was high time that something should be done. The rural population, no doubt, retains its ancestral robustness and vigour; but in the city a puny, enfeebled, and pallid race seems to be springing up—

"Mox daturi
Progeniem vitiosiorem."

The females are especially languid and sickly, owing to the want of brisk exercise, and to the high-pressure system of intellectual training to which they are subjected. Listen to the following observations of Mr. Oliver, Superintendent of Schools in the town of Lawrence:—

"I venture to say that not one girl in ten, now-a-days, enjoys really sound, rugged health. . . . I see many pleasant, many lovely countenances, full of the expression of gentleness and intellect; but the cheeks are narrow, the shoulders are stooping and round, the spine cannot be rigidly erect, the form is not well filled out, and nature's own carmine is bleached away as though the skin had been blanched by the chloride of lime. . . . An English girl accustomed to all weathers and thick shoes, considers half-a-dozen miles as a mere trifle of a walk, and she takes it day by day. The majority of American girls with their thin shoes would shrink from such an attempt, and regard it as nearly an impossibility."

Efforts are being made to do away with this reproach, and to secure for the rising generation, by the adoption of gymnastic exercises, a share of that physical health and vigour which—if not wilfully sacrificed by bad social habits and fashions,—is the proper heritage and attribute of the Anglo-Saxon race, whether it be domiciled in the eastern or in the western hemisphere.

But a still more momentous question remains: What is the influence of the public school system in a moral and religious point of view? How is a plan of education, if not absolutely secular, yet at least undenominational, telling on the country in this respect? Strong things have been written about the shortcomings of the American common schools in the vital matters of religion and morals. And undoubtedly from the school reports in Massachusetts, there is some reason to think that the system is not ministering as it should to the

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higher and diviner life of the people. Confessions may be met with scattered through the various school reports, that the *intellectual* unduly preponderates over the *moral* training. At the same time, it is satisfactory to find that with most of the school committees the conviction is very strongly felt that a moral and religious education is of the most vital importance and necessity. Judging from their own statements, I should say that a purely *secular* system is held in little esteem by the managers of schools in Massachusetts :—

"That (says the Westborough Report) is a narrow and defective view of education which is limited to the intellectual development and discipline, to the knowledge that may be turned to the purposes of mere worldly ability. While those ends are not to be overlooked, higher aims will be taken by those who have at heart the best good of the scholars and of society. We should labour in the schools for a pure state of the affections, for an enlightened conscience, for strong desires for usefulness and truth, for all that can ennoble and protect society and honour God."

The testimony of the School Committee of Monson is equally decided :—

"The literary studies of the schoolroom are all important and essential to the preparation of our children for the high responsibilities of citizens; but *without the principles of piety and morality, all their other education may, and probably will, become more a curse than a blessing.* The teacher who lacks the capacity or the disposition to educate the minds and hearts of his pupils in relation to these essential principles, is sadly deficient in the eye of the law, however he may be regarded by his employers."

Let the words of the Committee of Palmer also be noticed :—

"The moral character of a school is of the very highest importance. Experience has abundantly shown *that religion (not sectarianism) and education cannot be safely divorced;* the welfare of your children requires great care in the selection of teachers of correct habits and possessed of moral principle. *Deficiency on this point is more to be deplored than in intellectual ability or acquisition.*"

The following bold and outspoken admission of Mr. S. B. Shaw, chairman of the Lanesborough Committee, deserves to be quoted :—

"So far as it respects the drawing out of the intellectual powers and the comparative excellence of the apparatus by which that end is accomplished, the modern system is doubtless in advance of that of our fathers, while,—as it regards the education of man's spiritual nature in its relations to God and man, to its duties and responsibilities, to its best interests in this life and its destiny in that which is to come,—it is fully believed by those who have witnessed the operation of both, *that the old system was vastly in advance of the present.* Its superiority was evident in the respect paid by those whom it nurtured, for age, and station, and moral worth; by its reverence for things sacred and divine, and by its stricter regard for the courtesies and amenities of life. And what were the instrumentalities chiefly operative in this necessary work? *They were the early inculcation of Christian principles, the study of the Bible and the catechism, and daily prayer for guidance, for support, and spiritual wisdom.*"

Assuredly the devout and fervent spirit of the Pilgrim Fathers is not dead in the old Bay State, and we may hope that it will revive and burn with a flame as steady, but gentler and more genial than of yore, so that God may be in the midst of the people now as He was with their fathers aforetime.

It must be mentioned that by the State Law the Bible is required to be read daily in every public school. The Lord's Prayer also is

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repeated by the teacher at the opening of the school, and the ten commandments are, in many cases, recited by the children. Probably in many of the smaller and more remote districts, where the people are very much of one creed and denomination, the religious teaching in the schools goes further, and it is greater in quantity and more specific in quality. At all events, it is satisfactory to see that the current of public feeling, as represented in the Reports of the Committees, is setting strongly in favour of an education based on religion. The fuller and more definite use of the Bible is frequently insisted on. At a National Convention of the Friends of Education in America, held at Philadelphia, in 1850, the opinion was emphatically expressed that "the Bible should be read in all the schools in our land. It should be read as a devotional exercise, and be regarded by teachers and scholars as the text-book of morals and religion. The children should be early impressed with the conviction that it was written by the inspiration of God, and that their lives should be regulated by its precepts." And listen to the comment of the stanch Committee-men of Ipswich, Massachusetts: "Shall the Bible be banished from our schools? We answer in the words of one of the most distinguished civilians and orators of our State, 'Never, never, so long as a piece of Plymouth rock remains big enough to make a gun-flint of.'" There spake the stern spirit of the Puritan, and we accept it as evidence that on one great and momentous question the faith of their forefathers is still the faith of the men of Massachusetts.

And now, in concluding this necessarily imperfect survey, I cannot but remark that while we gather many useful hints from the public school system which has been under notice, there is one lesson which we may especially lay to heart,—one lesson which, I am persuaded, the friends and managers of that system would desire most earnestly to force home upon our minds, and that is, the vital necessity, for th sake of society, for the sake of the living souls at stake, of basing the training of the young on the great principles of *duty to God* and *duty to man*,—the paramount obligation not to make any unnatural divorce between religion and education.

It would be an inexcusable omission if I neglected to take this opportunity of publicly acknowledging the courtesy manifested towards me by Mr. O. Warner, the secretary of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. This gentleman most promptly responded to the application of a perfect stranger, and forwarded to me, at no cost to myself beyond that of carriage, a most valuable set of school reports and documents. I did not need this evidence to convince me that Americans are by no means unwilling to find opportunities of showing courtesy to English men. Whatever be the violence and bitterness that rise to the surface in times of excitement and trouble; whatever interested and venal journals on both sides of the Atlantic may do or say, there is, I am persuaded, a yet unextinguished and most real feeling of brotherhood in the deep heart of the people of Old and of New England. If any of my readers are sceptical on this point, let me, at least, in parting exhibit to them one scene which may awaken something of a more generous faith in their souls. It was the city of Boston, and the day was bright

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with the glorious weather of the Indian summer. An English Prince was there, and, perhaps for the first time these eighty years, the English standard floated, not only unchallenged but honoured, where Bunker's Hill still testifies to the sullen memories of the past. The yeoman soldiery of the State guarded in long array the crowded thoroughfares. Through the midst of acclaiming myriads the Prince moved on, till he found himself in the stately Music Hall, when from the vast orchestra, thronged with the children of the public schools of the Commonwealth, burst forth to the old familiar tune the words of brotherly welcome :—

"God bless our Fathers' land!
Keep her in heart and hand
One with our own!
From all her foes defend,
Be her brave people's Friend,
On all her realms descend,
Protect her throne!

"Father, with loving care
Guard Thou her kingdom's heir,
Guide all his ways:
Thine arm his shelter be,
From him by land and sea
Bid storm and danger flee,
Prolong his days!"

HUGH G. ROBINSON.

NOTE.—In the Article on "Public Education in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts," in our last number, we spoke of Mr. Horace Mann, the American statist, as "well known in connexion with the Census returns of 1851." We have since learned that there are, or rather we regret to say *were*, two Horace Manns—one American, the other English. The former died some years ago; this country still enjoys the services of the latter.

IV.—KEPLER.

IT has been remarked that the greatness of great men is an inheritance which they derive from their mothers. In sketching the history of the greatest man of his class whom the world ever saw—John Kepler—we may be allowed to verify this remark by presenting a faint outline portrait of Catherine Kepler. She was no astronomer, although her son assures us she was born under the same planetary influences with himself. Nor was she even a literary woman. But there was a vigour of character about her, which, had it been developed in a higher sphere, or exhibited in more happy circumstances, might have resulted in greatness. Of noble family, yet reduced to want; deserted by her husband, avoided by her friends, always in distress, and generally adding to that distress by her own violence, we see the hard outline of a woman, who, had her lot been propitious, might have been a Semiramis or a Queen Elizabeth. There is nothing effeminate about Catherine Kepler. When she is told that her son has contracted a debt to his tutor, she strides into the room of the latter, and endeavours to thrust money into his hands. When, at the age of seventy, her character was maligned, she hurled a bold defiance at her detractors, and, fearless of the torture with which she was threatened, she pursued them with firm step until death arrested her course. Such was the

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mother of John Kepler. His father was also of noble birth, but he had wasted his property in early life, and reduced himself to indigence. A little before the birth of John, he was summoned away to join the army. A year or so later the mother followed him, and left the son to the care of her relations, with whom his education was commenced. On their return some years after, his father maintained himself by keeping a tavern, and poor John was obliged to commence life in the capacity of tapster. Happily for him, both his parents were attacked with smallpox. The establishment was broken up, the father wandered away into the world, the mother was unable to take charge of her son, and so he fell to the care of the public: the liberality of the magistracy sent him to school; his genius transferred him to the University of Tübingen, where, at the age of twenty, he obtained the degree of Master of Arts, with great distinction. A lectureship in astronomy at Gratz falling vacant, it was offered to him. The offer was received, not, as we should have imagined, with delight, but with every expression of disgust. The young man remembered only that he was of noble family; he forgot the poverty of his parents, he forgot his father's ale-house, and his own menial position in it. He called the office of lecturer in astronomy a contemptible office, and accepted it only because he was compelled to do so. About astronomy he knew little, and cared less. But he was not the man to neglect his duty because of its unpalatable nature. During two years of study he made immense progress in the elements. Even at the threshold he caught sight of that vision of order which floated before him through life, and beckoned him on to tread the innermost courts of the science. There came down upon his mind the settled conviction that in God's works there must of necessity exist some harmonious law, the impress of the ordering hand, the perfection of simplicity and beauty. Years afterwards, when he had perfected those remarkable discoveries which have immortalized his name, he is said to have declared, "I have thought God's thoughts after him." The idea which was ever uppermost in his mind, and which forms the basis of his whole life, will perhaps be best gathered from a charming passage in his own writings:—

"When I was a youth," he says, "with plenty of time on my hands, I was much taken with the vanity, of which some grown men are not ashamed, of making anagrams, by transposing the letters of my name; written in Greek, out of Ιωαννης Κεπλῆρος, I made Σειρήνων Κάπηλος (the *tapster* of the *sirens*). In Latin, out of Joannes Keplerus came *serpens in aculeo* (a serpent in his sting). But not being satisfied with the meaning of these words, and being unable to make another, I trusted the thing to chance, and taking out of a pack of playing cards as many as there were letters in the name, I wrote one upon each, and then began to shuffle them, and at each shuffle to read them in the order they presented themselves, to see if any meaning came of it. Now, may all the Epicurean gods and goddesses confound this same chance, which, although I spent a good deal of time over it, never showed me anything like sense, even from a distance. So I gave up my cards to the Epicurean eternity, to be carried away into infinity; and it is said they are still flying about there, in the utmost confusion among the atoms, and have never yet come to any meaning. . . . . I will tell my opponents, not my own opinion, but my wife's. Yesterday, when weary with writing, and my mind quite dusty with considering these atoms, I was called to supper, and a

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salad I had asked for was set before me. 'It seems then,' said I aloud, 'that if pewter dishes, leaves of lettuce, grains of salt, drops of water, vinegar and oil, and slices of eggs had been floating about in the air from all eternity, it might at last happen by chance that there would come a salad.' 'Yes,' says my wife, 'but *not so nice and well-dressed as this of mine is.*'"

Here we have the key to Kepler's mind. So perfect a universe must have had a framer, and that framer would not scatter the materials at random, like the cards by the shuffle, but would arrange them in the order in which alone they could be read as sense; not *serpens in akuleo*, but JOHN KEPLER. The master-demon which urged him to read this writing, now took possession of his mind—a possession which never ceased for one moment. Henceforth, farewell to visions of advance in the army, farewell to the brilliant prospects which he pictured to himself two years ago. He has dreamt of planetary harmonies, and he will give his life, his all, to find them.

The earliest question which he proposed to himself was this, "Why are there six planets placed at such varied distances from each other?" He first had recourse to numbers. The sanctity of the number six—the six days of God's creation—had struck others before him. But he could make nothing out of it. He next tried his hand at inserting a planet between Mars and Jupiter; just where, on the opening day of the present century, a new planet was discovered. He further inserted a new planet between Mercury and Venus, where at this moment astronomers are eagerly looking for the appearance of one, convinced, some of them, from the calculations of Leverrier, that one at least exists there. But he was dissatisfied with this interpolation of imaginary planets, and he recurred to the number six. "At last," says he, "by a trifling accident, I lighted more nearly on the truth. I looked upon it as an interposition of Providence that I should obtain by chance what I had failed to discover by my utmost exertions." He is wrong again, but we quote this passage because it shows the firm faith in himself and in his cause, which is the true secret of Kepler's success, as it has been of that of others before and since his time.

This chance discovery did indeed conduct him to a relation, which was regarded by himself, as satisfactory in respect both to the number and to the distances of the planets. There are five regular solids and no more. These, with the circle, make six; hence the number of the planets. The relations between the solids and spheres, in and about them, gave the distances. This is the subject-matter of Kepler's first book. He introduced it to the world in the following words:—

"The intense pleasure I have received from this discovery never can be told. I regretted no more the time wasted; I tired of no labour; I shunned no toil of reckoning; days and nights I spent in calculations, until I could see whether this conclusion would agree with the orbits of Copernicus, or whether my joy was to vanish into air. I willingly subscribe that sentiment of Archytas, as given by Cicero:—'If I could mount up into heaven, and thoroughly perceive the nature of the world, and the beauty of the stars, that view would be without a charm for me, unless I had some one like you, reader, candid, attentive, and eager for knowledge, to whom to describe it.' If you respect this feeling, you will refrain from blame,—at any rate approach these pages . . . that in future you may give a reason to the rustics when they ask for the hooks that keep the skies from falling. Farewell."

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The work occupied Kepler six years. The amount of labour which it involved is quite incredible; and it is no wonder that the fatigue he had undergone, combined with the excitement occasioned by his imagined discovery, disposed him to commit a rash act. He was now twenty-six; and a comely young widow—a widow indeed for the second time—found favour in his eyes, and he married her. For a year following his marriage we lose sight of him. It is not a marriage trip that occupies him. It is not connubial bliss that absorbs him. He has little enough of that apparently. Cloud, not sunshine, is settling on him. Some sentiments opposed to the prevailing religious creed, or some speculations too daring for the age, have rendered it necessary for him to escape into Hungary. About the same time, a religious persecution of a most contemptible character drives Tycho Brahe from Denmark, and lands him, after some tossing, in the capital of Bohemia. Here we find Kepler turning up again, seeking out Tycho; and it is not speaking too strongly to assert that the present position of astronomical science is due to the happy conjunction of these two minds. They were both great; but great in totally opposite directions. Kepler, as we have seen, was a visionary; the idea of law haunted his imagination; like an *ignis fatuus* it danced ever before his eyes, dragging him hither and thither without rest. Two facts would suffice to support a theory with him. He was always building castles; if there were no firmer foundation, the air was dense enough. He was a great architect; until he met Tycho he had been building with sand. Tycho, on the other hand, knew nothing about harmonies, cared nothing about them. "Let him look at the moon," said the rustic, "as long as he pleases; he is no nearer to it than we are." It was too true. He was a mighty miner; he dug out the rough blocks; others might hew them into shape, and build them into temples. His bungling attempt to add a stone to the existing fabric, only served to disfigure and to destroy. But he was a great observer, eminently ingenious in constructing instruments, and skilful in employing them. He had brought with him from his magnificent observatory of Uraniburg some of the best of those instruments, and, what was better still, the results of his twenty years' observations with them. This was a treasure which Kepler ardently coveted. It drew him from Hungary. He sought out Tycho, who kept back nothing from him of all his wealth. He was a noble fellow, Tycho; noble when entertaining crowned heads in his little island of Huen; noble in his exile when he invites Kepler to join him as a very welcome friend to share in his observations and his instruments; noble when he delegated to an assistant the task of replying to the unhandsome letter which Kepler addressed to him in return for his many favours.

We have said that Kepler paid Tycho a visit. During a stay of three or four weeks, he perceived that all that was needed to advance his own theories was to get himself associated with Tycho. After much labour and exertion on the part of the latter, this union was effected. Accordingly, Kepler and his wife, who had returned to Gratz, set out for Prague, a journey which can now be easily accomplished in a

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short day. Two centuries and a half ago, however, such a journey was no light matter. Possibly Kepler had to travel on foot. At any rate he fell ill on the road. His money was exhausted, and he lay sick and straitened, until the bounty of his noble rival set him on his march again. Arrived in Prague, he lived entirely on Tycho. And it must be confessed, that when one sees him shortly after, quitting Prague, and leaving his wife a charge upon the liberality of the Danish astronomer, and when one hears that he writes a bitter invective against his benefactor on account of some fancied neglect, we are almost inclined to give up Kepler. But his frank confession of his error, his attention to Tycho in his last days (for Tycho did not long survive), his vindication of the memory of his friend, may be allowed to wipe out the remembrance of the sourness which poverty and privation had produced on his temper.

Kepler was now employed entirely to his satisfaction as one of Tycho's assistants. To his brother assistant and to himself was assigned the discussion of Tycho's splendid series of observations. The planet Mars fell to Kepler's lot, and the result was his immortal work on the motion of that planet. He commences that work by a preface, the value of which, as applied to the study of certain sciences—geology in our day is one of these—has not diminished by time:—

"If any one be too dull to comprehend the science of astronomy, or too feeble-minded to believe in Copernicus without prejudice to his piety, my advice to such a one is, that he should quit the astronomical schools, and condemning, if he has a mind, any or all of the theories of philosophers, should look to his own affairs, and leaving this struggle, should go home and plough his fields. And as often as he lifts up to this goodly heaven those eyes with which alone *he* is able to see, let him pour out his heart in praises and thanksgivings to God the Creator; and let him not fear but that he is offering a worship as acceptable to God as is his to whom God has granted to see yet more clearly with the eyes of the mind."

The great work on the motion of Mars was published in 1609, and it establishes two of the three laws which bear Kepler's name, and which are the foundation-stones of modern astronomy. Hitherto it had been believed that a planet's motion was uniform, not indeed about the earth or the sun, but about some point called the centre of the equant. Kepler showed that it is the area, not the arc, which is uniform. This is one of his laws, that the areas described by a planet about the sun are proportional to the times. Hitherto the circle had been the figure referred to for planetary motion. Complicated, indeed, was the machinery by which it was sought to represent a planet's movements:—

> "When they come to model heaven, and calculate the stars,
> To save appearances, they gird the sphere,
> With centric and eccentric scribbled o'er,
> Cycle and epicycle, orb in orb."

Kepler scattered this machinery to the winds, and reduced a planet's orbit to a simple ellipse, with the sun in its focus. On Tycho's death-bed, his spirit had been struggling with the question, "Have I lived in vain?" Had he been permitted to live to see these re-

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sults, would they not have given him strong assurance? The work on the planet Mars is, in every way, a most remarkable work. It details, with extraordinary animation, the disentangling of a complicated web. The author carries his readers through every stage in the progress of his research. He gives the history of all his failures. He shows how one thought was developed out of another. The name of the planet Mars had suggested the idea of war; and, accordingly, Kepler writes his story under the allegory of an attack made on the dominions of the planet. After marching and countermarching, and hanging on the skirts of the enemy through forty-four chapters, a decisive battle is fought in the forty-fifth. At first sight, the enemy appears to be entirely routed, and Kepler addresses the reader in the following strain:—

"Allow me, gentle reader, to enjoy so splendid a triumph for one little day —I mean through the next five chapters. Meantime, be all rumours of new rebellion suppressed. Hereafter, if anything shall come to pass, we will go through it in its own time and season. Now, let us be merry, as then we will be bold."

So he proceeds to make merry for five chapters. Many of the facts are brought under the dominion of the theory. But at the end of these chapters, the bad news can no longer be kept a secret. It is announced in the following bulletin:—

"While thus triumphing over Mars, and preparing for him as for one altogether vanquished, tabular prisons, and equated eccentric fetters, it begins to be buzzed here and there that the victory is incomplete. For the enemy, left unguarded, a despised captive has suddenly burst all the chains of the equations, and broken forth of the prisons of the tables. . . . Skirmishers, disposed all round the circuit of the eccentric, routed my forces of physical causes. . . . And now there was little to prevent the fugitive enemy from effecting a junction with his rebellious supporters, and reducing me to despair, had I not suddenly sent into the field a reserve of new physical forces on the dispersion and rout of the veterans, and diligently followed without allowing him the slightest respite, in the direction in which he had broken out."

The war is renewed, and though the struggle is long and tedious, victory is no longer doubtful. Kepler's heart is now too full for words, and he contents himself with sketching, in the corner of one of his diagrams, a triumphal car rolling through the clouds with the planet chained to it, and the goddess of victory holding a laurel wreath for the brow of the victor.

During the many years Kepler was engaged on this work, he occupied the post of astronomer to the Emperor Rudolph, to which a salary was attached, amply sufficient for his maintenance; but, alas! such was the poverty of the imperial treasury that very little of it was ever paid. Under these circumstances, he was compelled to cast nativities and deal in the mysteries of astrology. He says—

"I have written a vile prophesying almanac, which is scarcely more respectable than begging, unless it be, because it saves the Emperor's credit who abandons me entirely, and with all his frequent and recent orders in council, would suffer me to perish with hunger."

And again—

"This foolish daughter astrology supports her wise, but needy mother astronomy, from the profits of a profession not generally considered creditable."

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So he struggled on for eleven years, begging his bread as he himself expresses it. At the end of that period he goes into Austria to seek for an appointment at Linz. From this place he writes the following melancholy letter :—

"I could get no money from the Court, and my wife, who had for a long time been suffering from low spirits, was taken violently ill towards the end of 1610. She was scarcely convalescent when all my three children were at once attacked with small-pox. Leopold with his army occupied the town beyond the river, just as I lost the dearest of my sons. The town on this side of the river where I lived was harassed with Bohemian troops; to complete the whole, the Austrian army brought the plague with them into the city. I went into Austria, and endeavoured to obtain the situation which I now hold. Returning in June, I found my wife in a decline from grief at the death of her son, and I lost her also within eleven days after my return. Then came family annoyances. My time and money were wasted together, till on the death of the Emperor in 1612, I was suffered to depart to Linz."

Kepler was now a widower. His married life does not appear to have been a happy one. He was simple enough to expect money with his wife; perhaps he reckoned on the spoils of her two previous husbands; and he was chagrined and irritated when he discovered his mistake. His wife was a prey to low spirits; her temper was not good; and pride and poverty were not the best ingredients for sweetening an otherwise bitter cup. We might have reasonably concluded that Kepler would have hesitated before he committed himself again to the bands of wedlock. Or perhaps we may be disposed to account for the reverse being the fact on the principle which gives the law to the gambler, to double the stake after every loss. At any rate, Kepler quickly gave his friends a roving commission to look out for a suitable wife for him. And he discusses the claims of the different ladies suggested to him in a way quite characteristic, and exactly of the same complexion as his discussion of the hypotheses to account for the planetary relations. He has to consider the claims of no fewer than twelve candidates before he is satisfied. Of the eleven whom he rejected, or who rejected him, one was too old, another too young; one was too proud, another too fickle, another too short and fat. At last in number twelve he meets with one, by name Susanna, who is middle-aged, without pride, without extravagance, and who can bear to work; and her accordingly he marries, nor apparently had he ever reason to regret the step.

Kepler was now at the highest pinnacle of his eminence. His name was spread over Europe, and foreign ambassadors and visitors to the court of the Emperor of Germany paid homage to his genius. And opportunities of bettering his condition did not fail to present themselves. In 1617, he was offered a professorship in Bologna; and three years later Sir Henry Wotton, the English ambassador at Venice, finding him oppressed by pecuniary difficulties, urged him to go over to England. But he resisted all solicitations to induce him to quit Germany. "I am German," he said, "by birth and by spirit, imbued with German principles, exercising the freedom of a German tongue. I will not quit Germany."

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In 1619 came out his great work on the harmonies of the universe. For two-and-twenty years he had brooded incessantly over the idea of union amongst the planetary movements, and now, after unheard-of seeking, he lights on one of those ruling laws—that which is known as Kepler's third law: "That the squares of the periodic times of the planets are proportional to the cubes of their mean distances;" so that if one planet be three times as far from the sun as another, its period of revolution about the sun will be rather more than five times that of the other, because the cube of 3 and the square of 5 are nearly the same. Saturn is nearly ten times as far from the sun as the earth is, and his period is nearly thirty years. Now the cube of 10 is very nearly the same as the square of 30. This is one of the keystones of the Newtonian system. Kepler's rapture at discovering it was unbounded:—

"What I prophesied twenty-two years ago, as soon as I discovered the relation between the five solids and the heavenly orbits; what I firmly believed long before I had seen Ptolemy's harmonies; what I promised my friends before I had made the discovery; what, sixteen years ago, I had urged as a thing to be sought; that for which I joined Tycho Brahe, for which I settled in Prague; for which I have devoted the best part of my life to astronomical contemplations, at length I have brought to light, and have recognised its truth beyond my most sanguine expectations. . . . It is now eighteen months since I got the first glimpse of light, three months since the dawn, very few days since the unveiled sun—most admirable to gaze on—burst upon me. Nothing holds me; I will indulge my sacred fury; I will triumph over mankind by the honest confession that I have stolen the golden vases of the Egyptians, to build up a tabernacle for my God far away from the confines of Egypt. If you forgive me, I rejoice; if you are angry, I can bear it; the die is cast; the book is written to be read either now or by posterity, I care not which; it may well wait a century for a reader, as God has waited 6000 years for an interpreter."

We pass over the next five years of Kepler's life. There is indeed little to mark them. We trust that the cold winds of spring have now given place to the warm summer sun. We trust at least that if the storm still rages without, a bright domestic fire lights up his humble hearth. We gladly catch at any gleam to relieve the leaden sky that has settled over him.

But years of unremitting labour, years of weariness and watching, of struggle with poverty, with the plague and with the civil war, have reduced him to an early old age. At length comes a promise of better days. At length a gilded ray settles on his head. Alas! it turns out to be but the bright flicker which is the prelude to final darkness.

The great Wallenstein, a name redolent of poetry, and of Schiller, a name associated with the inflexible will which could declare, "Were Stralsund bound to heaven by an iron chain, I must and would have it;" —a name which, like the ghost of Banquo, raises up the shadows of mighty men, the ferocious Tilly, the wily Richelieu; with their Protestant opponents, the noble Gustavus Adolphus, whose victory at Lützen was chanted in *Te Deums* by the vanquished, because it was purchased by his own blood; the gloomy Mansfield, who, as he felt his end approaching, rose from his bed, clad himself in complete armour, and stood erect until death brought him thundering down—the great

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Wallenstein—a man of men such as these—the leader of the Romanist forces, invites Kepler, an excommunicated, if not a Protestant astronomer, to join him. The invitation is accepted. It is an ill-starred union, and it does not prosper. For a few brief months Kepler appears to be flourishing. We trust he was so. When we next see his pale face it is amongst the nobles assembled at the memorable meeting of the Estates at Ratisbon in 1630. We hear his feeble voice amongst the surges of that mighty assemblage, pleading for bread. But the sun of his patron is for the time eclipsed, and he pleads in vain. His fruitless journey, his fatigue, his distress, act on a constitution already exhausted with years of incessant toil; and a brain fever hurries him to the grave. He died on the 5th of November 1630, the very day that Gustavus formed an alliance with the Landgravine of Hesse—the day of the opening of the second act of the Thirty Years' War.

Up to the present century, Kepler, out of Germany, was regarded as a star of the third or fourth magnitude. In this country he had certainly been treated with scant justice. Newton, it is true, refers to him again and again, but so he does to Wren and to Bullialdus, whom the world scarcely recognises as astronomers. His first and third great laws, that the orbits of the planets are ellipses, and that the squares of the periodic times are proportional to the cubes of the mean distances, had been dissociated from each other and from him. The connexion between the ellipse and the whole time is evaded in the Principia by the latter being first deduced from the circle. And the result is referred to Wren and Hooke and Halley, but not to Kepler. And although in his third book, when the same proposition occurs, Newton expressly states that the fact was first observed by Kepler, yet the statement is qualified by a remark which seems to imply that Kepler supposed the planets to move about the earth rather than about the sun. Kepler's second law, again, that the areas are proportional to the times, forms Newton's first proposition, and yet the name of Kepler is not mentioned. No wonder, then, that English astronomy forgot Kepler, or neglected him. The current has now changed, and is set in too strong in the opposite direction. Extremes run rapidly into each other, and all extremes are wrong. If you travel into Germany you may perhaps be gratified by the sight of a picture in which the great men of science are grouped together. You will there see Kepler prominent, and Newton in the dim distance. Even an Englishman, accustomed to see things through German spectacles, has declared, "It would take two or three Galileos and Newtons to make one Kepler." No less a man than Coleridge is said to have uttered this nonsense. Kepler obtained in his day the title of the Legislator of the Heavens. As the discoverer of the laws which regulate the motions of the planets, he has earned to himself an exalted immortality. We would not take him down an inch from his lofty pedestal. We rejoice to do him honour. But we must be allowed to place above him the comprehensive mind which could penetrate through all these laws, with their hundreds of turnings, and bring them back to a single

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ruling cause. The one rescued from the winds the scattered leaves of the sybils, and read to the world the mysterious fragments; the other, the high priest of science, gave the key to their meaning, interpreted the oracles, and bound them up into a single volume—the immortal Principia. P. KELLAND.

V.—LEVEQUE'S SCIENCE DU BEAU.*

To any one who has studied at all the intellectual development of France during the last twenty years, it must seem evident that the publication of a work like the present is exceedingly opportune. The *romantique* movement which originated about 1829, and which was, to a great extent, justified by the false views then prevalent respecting æsthetics in general, soon assumed a false direction. Instead of merely clearing away a few difficulties, enlarging the boundaries of art, and explaining the real character of the Aristotelian code, the followers of M. Victor Hugo aimed at revolutionizing altogether the public taste; in their anxiety to discard the traditions connected with the name of Boileau, they opened for themselves new paths through a barren country, and finally, the *romantique* school, after producing the magnificent, but sometimes unequal, lyrics of the author of *Les Orientales*, and the polished compositions of M. Alfred de Vigny, has resulted in the tales of M. de Balzac, and the realism of M. Gustave Flaubert. When art stoops so low, it is quite time that a reaction should set in, and that the true principles of art should be powerfully indicated. The signal has been given in the present instance by no less eminent a body than the *Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques;* to state the fact differently, the *Académie* has made itself the mouthpiece of public opinion by proposing as the subject of one of its periodical prizes, "the question of The Beautiful." Even if one candidate alone had accepted the challenge, and attempted to grapple with so important, and we may say so difficult, a subject, the result would have been satisfactory; but several essays were sent in, and nearly every one of them, although deficient in some special point, was distinguished by a great deal of research, or by views of an elevated character. The work to which we would now draw the attention of our readers obtained the prize; and M. Lévêque, after having availed himself of the critiques made by the examiners, submits to the public at large a treatise which seems to us decidedly superior to the well-known productions of Diderot, Hutcheson, and Baumgarten.

In discussing the science of the beautiful, our author begins by stating the questions which arise from a consideration of that science. What are the effects of the beautiful on our intellect, on our feelings,

* *La science du beau étudiée dans ses principes, dans ses applications et dans son histoire.* Par Charles Lévêque, ouvrage Couronné par l'Institut. 2 vols., 8vo. Paris, A. Durand. London, Barthès & Lowell.

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on our activity? This is the first point to establish. We must, before everything else, make a collection of facts; we must observe, and then deduce from our observations the principles which shall enable us to appreciate works of art, or beauty as it displays itself in the productions of nature. But, under the outward manifestations of the beautiful, common sense teaches us that a principle exists which can be examined and described; the presence or absence of that principle is immediately perceptible, and the least experienced judges feel the impressions of beauty in the exact proportion of the conformity of the object to the standard above mentioned. This is the *metaphysical* part of the subject, a part which philosophers alone are competent to treat correctly; although, as we have just said, even imperfectly cultivated minds spontaneously and unconsciously assent to its legitimacy.

M. Lévêque addresses himself, accordingly, in the first instance, to outward experience. He enters a garden, and considering a lily, he analyses carefully what we may call its artistic qualities, in order to arrive at some rule or rules which shall enable him to estimate in the same manner other objects. His investigation, which is carried on with the utmost precision, and with a clearness and vigour of style above all praise, leads to the statement of two characters which our author assigns as the fundamental conditions of beauty in everything —the ideal grandeur and the ideal order of the species to which the object considered belongs. From this particular example of the lily, M. Lévêque rises higher, and examines the principle of beauty as exhibited in a child, and then in the character of Socrates. This last named topic leads accessorily to a discussion of the question, whether there is an ideal of the physical form of man. The answer is given in the affirmative; at the same time it is wrong to suppose, says M. Lévêque, that beauty, absolutely speaking, consists in the perfect balance between the harmony of outward form and the invisible principle which pervades that form. As our author remarks, moral beauty exists, and reveals itself to him who possesses it, even if the harmony does not exist. All that reason can grant is, that when the balance just now alluded to fails, the invisible beauty appears less distinctly than it would otherwise do to the eyes of other men. Finally, we may say, putting the principle in a general manner, that the invisible alone is beautiful *per se*, on condition of manifesting itself as an element invested with power and harmony; whatever is visible possesses, æsthetically speaking, only the merit of expression, however the epithet "beautiful" may be applied to it.

We have now seen the effects of beauty on the human mind; let us at present examine how it affects our sensibility. It is above all important to notice here that the beautiful, being immaterial, acts immediately neither upon our nerves nor upon our senses; and out of these, three at least have evidently nothing to do with beauty. It would be ridiculous to talk of the beauty of a perfume, a joint of meat, or a piece of marble, considered exclusively as a tangible object. If we come to the senses of sight and of hearing, the problem seems at first more puzzling, but a little care will enable us to avoid the con-

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fusion into which have fallen all those whose views on this subject are erroneous. Is light, is sound, considered in itself, a beautiful thing? Then why is it that no painter has yet tried to charm us by the representation of light alone? But no, the absurdity of such a course would be too evident, and not even the magic colouring of Claude Lorraine could make light beautiful, unless it was playing about the varied features of a landscape, or the lineaments of the human countenance. The same remark applies to sound. Let a consummate artist play a symphony of Beethoven on the most wretched of all pianofortes, the physical sensation will be painful, whilst the æsthetic emotion is pleasurably excited; if, on the contrary, a mere beginner in music performs on Erard's best instrument a vulgar or pretentious tune, the fine qualities of the tone make the ignorance of the musician and the wretchedness of the music only more striking than they would perhaps naturally seem if brought forward into connexion with a poor instrument.

M. Lévêque follows up the same subject in the most ingenious manner, by showing that the æsthetic principle is essentially distinct from all the other sentiments which arise in our soul. He then touches incidentally on the phenomenon of admiration, and examines the curious problem of suffering or pain as resulting from the beautiful. It is certain that under a variety of circumstances, the perception of beauty produces pain; and certain privileged natures, longing for an ideal to which they cannot attain, are right in affirming that the contemplation of beauty only multiplies their anguish, instead of bringing calm and repose along with it. But we may remark with M. Lévêque, that such privileged natures have the firm hope of possessing one day the ideal which they so earnestly aspire after in this world. Now hope is literally and truly the present enjoyment of a happiness to come, and therefore the person who is certain of living on the other side of the grave in close and intimate communion with the only source of all beauty has, even now, a kind of anticipated happiness.

The examination of the question of the beautiful, as bearing upon our activity, is equally suggestive of interesting and varied applications. We can produce the beautiful, and whilst doing so we are under the sway of enthusiasm, inspiration, or genius. M. Lévêque reviews the different phases through which the artist passes whilst attempting to express to the utmost of his power the grandeur and the harmony which, by their combination, realize the idea of beauty; he then concludes the chapter by weighing the objection which is supposed to arise from the apparent disorder connected with genius. An essential distinction should be drawn, he says, between excitement and inspiration. Excitement is the result of causes which have nothing whatever to do with genius; and if, when producing some masterpiece, the man of genius is more animated, more enthusiastic, more brilliant, than amidst ordinary circumstances, yet he never falls into that excited, feverish, convulsed state which melodramatic authors are so fond of representing as the normal condition of inspiration. It is repugnant to reason to suppose that Phidias, Sophocles, Bacon,

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Poussin, or Mozart were in a state of quasi-madness whilst engaged upon the composition of their glorious works.

The last four chapters of the first part will not detain us long. They are devoted to what M. Lévêque calls *la métaphysique du beau*, and treat separately of the beautiful, the pretty, the sublime, the ugly, and the ridiculous. All the observations connected with these several topics are illustrated by a variety of examples judiciously selected, and evidence on the part of the author a power of metaphysical analysis which is extremely remarkable.

With the second part of the volume we step out of the province of mere theory, and come to the applications which M. Lévêque makes of his doctrine. He considers, in the first place, the ideal of beauty in man; he then appreciates it in the other manifestations of nature; and finally, he views it as bearing upon God himself. This last order of ideas contains—our author acknowledges it—nothing very new; it is merely a re-statement of the leading observations made by all the thinkers who, like Leibnitz, for instance, have aimed at constructing a system of Theodicy; but on such a subject it was impossible to make any fresh discoveries.

The third division of M. Lévêque's work is the one which we prefer, and for readers who are not thoroughly accustomed to the severity of metaphysical language it will, we doubt not, be the most attractive. It contains, in a series of seven chapters, the application of the rules of æsthetics to art in general—architecture, sculpture, painting, music, dancing, poetry, and eloquence. It is evident that, to discuss properly this part of the science, the accuracy of a philosopher was not the only indispensable quality. An artist alone could judge as they ought to be judged the *chefs-d'œuvre* of Poussin, Raphael, or Phidias; in order to analyse competently Mozart's *Don Giovanni*, or Beethoven's Pastoral Symphony, a thorough taste for music was requisite; and finally, the feeling of a poet is quite as necessary as the taste of a critic to enjoy the beauties of Racine, Shakspeare, or Homer. We shall not be saying too much when we express our opinion that M. Lévêque has treated this portion of his work with a completeness and an enthusiasm which renders the perusal of it quite delightful; the productions he has selected by way of illustration are such as bring prominently forward the peculiar features of their respective authors; and the observations to which they give rise show that the æsthetic training he has received himself is excellent.

The *programme* published by the *Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques* included a survey of the principal systems of æsthetics proposed both in ancient and in modern times. This takes up the fourth part of M. Lévêque's treatise. Beginning with Plato, whom he finds fault with for subordinating art to education and to politics, he reviews the theories of Aristotle, Plotinus, St. Augustine, Hutcheson, Le Père André, Baumgarten, Reid, Kant, Schelling, and Hegel. Notwithstanding the minor differences which are found in the views of all these philosophers, M. Lévêque remarks that their fundamental principles are the same, and that, as Leibnitz proclaimed the existence

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of a *perennis quædum philosophia* which upholds, from age to age, the essential truths about God and man, so there is likewise a permanent science of æsthetics, explaining the beautiful by an appeal to the ideal and to the soul. In a final chapter, our author gives a kind of summary of the whole work, and vindicates the claims of Spiritualism in opposition to those both of Pantheism and of Materialism.

We have thus endeavoured, in this short review, to give an idea of M. Lévêque's prize-essay; and in concluding, we cannot but congratulate the *Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques* for having elicited so remarkable a work.

VI.—MODES OF ORGANIZING SCHOOLS.*

I. *The Individual Mode or System.*—In theory three distinct *modes* of teaching are referred to—the Individual, the Simultaneous, and the Mutual. But in reality and in practice no one of the three is systematically followed; and the organization of a school, even of the best description, is always a mixture of them. In drawing attention to modes, we mean not to prompt any one to follow, step by step, the precise rules that certain authors have laid down, more or less arbitrarily, for the simultaneous or for the mutual system; but only to have distinct sources of reference for the use of teachers, in order to complete the organization of their schools in the way best accommodated to the condition of particular persons, places, and available appliances.

What is called the individual mode is, strictly speaking, not a mode; for its properly distinguishing character is the absence of all combining instrumentality for directing an assemblage of children, the absence of all organization in the teaching of a school; and it is school-teaching only that we are now considering. Accordingly, the individual mode by its very nature ought to be excluded from schools.

It is true that in the case of private education, where only one child (at all events not more than four) is to be taught, individual instruction may produce excellent results, especially in the way of intellectual and moral development,—results which may well make us regard it as the ideal which we ought as nearly as possible to approach, consistently with the conditions to which, by circumstances, we are obliged to submit. In individual teaching, indeed, the master is placed in direct and continual intercourse with the pupil; he has the best opportunity of knowing the child, and has full freedom of employing the best means which the particular nature of the child may suggest to him; his lessons, whether intellectual or moral, are conveyed with greater propriety, his personal influence on the child's character is much more considerable; in short, the whole of the edu-

* Adapted from *Cours Théorique et Pratique de Pédagogie.* By M. Charbonneau.

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cation, but especially the moral part of it, is, in regard to results, both more certain and more fruitful.

But precious as these advantages are, we are almost always under the necessity of rejecting such a mode of teaching. It is a mode which there could be no difficulty of employing in a school, if the teacher had only three or four children to train; but in a school numbering no more than eight or ten—a thing happily not to be met with now-a-days,—the advantages would be outweighed by the inconveniences, or rather it would be almost impossible to carry on the school at all. How, then, would it be in an assemblage of from twenty to five-and-twenty children? There would be about a quarter of an hour devoted to each pupil per day, that is, for reading, writing, and arithmetic, a lesson of five minutes in each subject; or, if the duration of each lesson is to be extended to forty-five minutes in place of fifteen, each pupil would have his turn only every three days. Merely to state such a result is to pronounce judgment respecting the mode.

The rarity, then, or else the brevity of the lessons, is the first inconvenience attending individual instruction in a school, but it is not perhaps the most serious objection. In the instance above supposed, each pupil must be left to himself and be quite idle, with scarcely any superintendence, either for $5\frac{3}{4}$ hours in the day, or for two days $5\frac{1}{4}$ hours in every three days, for such are the intervals that must occur between the consecutive lessons which the master gives him. Is not this absurd? Is it to be wondered at that pupils in such circumstances should be weary and restless, indulge in trifling, and occasion disturbance to the teacher and the school? That insubordination should prevail, and progress in learning be a nullity among them?

But there is a disadvantage always attending individual instruction, whether in school or at home: it is the absence of emulation—we mean a good and true ambition, proceeding only from the desire of well-doing, and urging us to do our best. A child taught privately cannot know what he is capable of; he has no clear and distinct perception of it, because he has no points of comparison to judge from; but if there were schoolfellows receiving the same lessons, and employed in the same tasks with himself, he would see what they do, he would thereby know what he himself could accomplish, and aided by a love of duty, would desire to accomplish it. All would be thus mutually stimulated. This, we should remember, is a condition of things which unfortunately can have no place in individual teaching, even under the most favourable circumstances.

II. *The Simultaneous Mode.*—When a certain number, even a very limited number, of children are to be taught by one master, it is impossible that the instruction should be imparted, at least with fruitful results, to each individually. Hence has been devised the Simultaneous Mode, which, as its name indicates, consists in giving a lesson to several pupils at once, or as if there was but one to deal with. The children of a school are divided into four or five classes or sections, and the teacher distributes his time and lessons as if he had to instruct

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only four or five children. The work of each pupil is the same as that of every other in his class; but all the classes cannot have at once the same work, for the master can address only one class at a time. He takes each class in order, gives to it whatever lesson he may have proposed, and at the same time keeps a watchful eye on the other classes, each of which is occupied apart, with some task which he has previously assigned to it.

In order to manage a school on such a system, it is evidently necessary to have school-fittings of a particular kind, and arranged in a particular way. In the first place, there must be rows of desks and seats, each accommodating six or eight pupils, and placed parallel one behind another, in such a manner that no two of the rows of pupils may be face to face, but all looking one way, so that all the pupils can be seen by the master at one view. Then there is requisite for the master a raised platform, from which he may give his lessons to each class, called up in turn and standing round him, while at the same time he watches and keeps in order the rest of the school. Lastly, it is necessary that there be some boards, at least for reading lessons, and that all the pupils of a class have the same books, in order to follow the same lessons. We might mention also a black board, with its appendages, a signalling instrument of some kind, and other objects that ought to be found in every school, and are not special accessories of the simultaneous system.

The mode of which we have thus given a summary view is not without inconvenience, at least when the pupils are too numerous.

First, as regards attention to the lesson and to the task assigned: However careful a master may be, it is possible that some one pupil of a group may be less attentive to the lesson than if the teacher had to deal directly with that pupil alone. Questions may be proposed to him, but there is an equal chance that they may be put to some other pupil, and this circumstance is sufficient to make his mind less attentive, and the lesson less profitable to him. As regards the classes that are at work in their seats, while the master is giving a lesson to another class, they are watched by him, it is true, but with only a glance now and then; and it may easily happen that their work is less actively performed, and less fruitful than it ought to be.

Next, as regards discipline: There is necessarily a very close connexion between the work of the pupil and the discipline of the school; the one cannot relax without causing a corresponding relaxation of the other; for if a child is not carefully watched, if he is not actively and usefully engaged, he amuses himself and becomes noisy, and discipline is much compromised.

The simultaneous mode is, nevertheless, the best that can be used, when the number of children does not exceed forty or fifty. We ought even to say that with this limitation the inconveniences which we have pointed out might dwindle down and disappear. In reality they owe their existence to the great difficulty in which the master is placed, by having at the same moment his mind occupied with what he is teaching, and his eye watching over the other divisions. We can easily imagine that there must be such a difficulty in the case, how-

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ever excellent may be the teacher's aptitude in other respects, when he is giving a lesson to a class of from fifteen to twenty children, and at the same time watching the conduct of some sixty or seventy others. But in a school of forty or fifty children, it could not be thus; the simultaneous mode, we repeat, would then scarcely have anything but advantages. And the following are the advantages it has in general, but especially in the case of limited numbers:—

First: The teacher is by this system brought into direct and sufficiently frequent contact with the pupils; he alone instructs them; he alone acts directly upon them; and he can easily turn all to intellectual and moral development. It is true that his communication with the pupils is not so intimate as in the individual mode; the teacher and taught are not one and one; and they come in direct intercourse less frequently, because the teacher has to share his attentions among several sections: but still the direct communication here is sufficient, though less amply sufficient, to secure the main advantage of the individual mode. We approximate to the good results of that mode as nearly as the numbers will allow, and realize the best possible organization, which, according to the pedagogic maxim, is that in which the master is as frequently and as much as possible in direct intercourse with the pupil.

Secondly: There is sufficient scope for emulation; for each class consists of pupils at the same stage of instruction, and therefore with abilities fitted to enlighten and stimulate each other.

Lastly: All the pupils are constantly occupied; some following a lesson with the master, the rest working at their desks; and if the school be not too numerous, the surveillance of the latter is perfectly practicable: they are under the master's immediate observation. Hence there is no opportunity for idleness, disorder, noise, play, or irregularity; the school is a scene of order and progress.

III. *The Mutual Mode.*—In this mode, as its name indicates, the pupils instruct one another. Those who are most advanced are made monitors, and give lessons to their school-fellows. This kind of teaching becomes necessary when the master himself has not time to give lessons to all the sections of a very numerous school. The children are divided into eight classes, each of which is subdivided, if necessary, so that there may be any number of groups in the school. A group commonly consists of ten or twelve, and is superintended by a monitor, by which arrangement as many lessons may be going on at one time as there are sections in the school, and the whole may be occupied with the same branch of instruction.

It is to be supposed that this plan, which is not without some complexity, requires a particular kind of school-furniture, beyond the requirements of the simultaneous mode. The desks and seats are much the same in both, and are similarly arranged. There is, however, a succession of circles, or rather semicircles, around the walls, one for each group; they are made of wood and iron, and stand at breast height, evenly fronting the wall; but instead of these it answers well enough to have semicircles drawn in any manner upon the floor.

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Each desk should be supplied with accessories, viz., a drawer at one end for pencils, pens, etc., places for keeping copies, a telegraph to give notice whether the work has been revised and corrected. Each of the circles again requires accessories, viz., a black board, a pointer, and lesson-cards. The rest of the provision in this mode consists chiefly of prints or pictures, which are requisite for every branch of instruction.

The employment of this mode rests mainly upon the monitors, of whom there are two sorts—general monitors and special monitors. There are two general monitors, acting at the same time, aiding the master in the surveillance and general arrangement of the classes, and one of these is always on the master's platform, observing the behaviour of every child. The special monitors are those engaged in teaching the several groups. The master ought to exercise the greatest care in training his monitors, for to them the interests of the school are committed. He will not think it enough to give them the small amount of instruction which they have opportunity of receiving during the ordinary school-hours, but will give them at least an hour's private instruction, either before or afterwards, whatever additional fatigue it may cost him; for to omit this would involve the neglect of an essential duty, and would inflict injury tending to the ruin of his school. He will not be content even with training his monitors, but will deem it necessary to watch them attentively while they are at their posts, to walk from group to group, and interrogate the pupils himself, in order to ascertain that they are making progress, and that the monitors are faithfully discharging their duty. It may readily be supposed how, without such precaution, abuses might creep in, and discipline be endangered.

Such is, in brief, the economy of the mutual mode. It is not without serious inconveniences, and, indeed, is farthest removed from the ideal of good organization, viz., that in which, as we have said, the teacher is as frequently and as much as possible in direct intercourse with his pupils. Accordingly, this mode should not be employed but from necessity, and as an expedient accommodated to circumstances in which other methods, though in themselves much superior, would be impracticable, as, for example, where a master has the sole charge of a very numerous school.

The inconveniences pertaining to the mutual mode are of two kinds:—

First, the great difficulty of obtaining monitors, and of employing them with advantage. When the children of our elementary schools have received a certain amount of instruction, such as, however imperfect, would fit them for beginning the work of monitors, they for the most part leave the school for the workshop, and the small number remaining beyond that period are often insufficient for the wants of the school. Besides, among those who thus remain, few care to be made monitors, and parents have a special aversion to it, not seldom expressly forbidding it. How difficult, then, must it be, in such circumstances, to recruit the ranks of those monitors on whom rests all

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the credit of the mutual mode! To what disorganization is the school liable! And how great is the risk of a teacher being obliged to choose for monitors children that are too young and too little instructed! Besides, even those whom it is usual to consider good monitors are always very unequal to their work; they cannot have learned enough to qualify them for imparting to others such instruction as possesses any worth and substance.

Secondly, the matter is still worse when we think of the importance of education, strictly so called; of the necessity of making instruction conducive to the development of the intellectual and moral faculties. How is this to be provided for in the monitorial system? How are children to set about the work of cultivating the understanding through the exercise of comparing, judging, reasoning? How should they be able to derive, from many occasions that arise, a means of purifying the heart, inspiring good sentiments, inculcating moral precepts? It is only necessary to hint at such conditions; a glance will show the radical impossibility of fulfilling them. Here, then, we behold the children of a numerous school destitute of the means of education. Even to imagine such a thing is painful.

It would be a serious fault to adopt the mutual system, if the circumstances admitted of any other plan; for example, if one had only ninety or a hundred pupils. But, as we have said, whatever be the inconveniences of that system, when a teacher is obliged to superintend alone a very great number of children—100, 150, and especially 200 and upwards—it is quite necessary for him to adopt, I do not say the best possible organization, but the only one then possible—the mutual mode.

This mode, it remains to observe, is not without some peculiar advantages, which chiefly manifest themselves on a comparison of its operation with that of any other system for the same number of children. We may notice three of these:—

First, as this mode allows us to make as many divisions of the school as we please, each may be made to consist of a small number—eight or ten pupils, or even fewer; and it is more easy by this means to restrict each group to pupils who are on the same level—a circumstance obviously favourable to learning and progress.

Secondly, as by the use of monitors lessons can be given to all the groups at once, and no division has to wait to receive its lesson until the others have had theirs, the lessons can be carried on in continued succession with all the groups; whereas it is certain that pupils, when working by themselves, do what we may, watch as we may, are always less actively and profitably occupied than when receiving a lesson. This is especially true of young children and beginners.

Thirdly, there is more stir, more physical activity, in this than in other modes, occasioned by the necessary removals from desks to circles, and conversely, and by other exercises and evolutions peculiar to this mode. Now, children like moving about—it is Nature's design that they should; they suffer both physically and morally when long restrained from it; they then become restless, a trouble to themselves

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and others; their health may even be sadly injured; but when this legitimate want is satisfied, they are peaceable, orderly, and docile; and on this circumstance good discipline very largely depends.

IV. *The Mixed Mode.*—Impressed by the radical inconveniences of the mutual system, notwithstanding some minor advantages, and no less impressed by the impossibility of dispensing with monitors, when a school is very numerous, teachers have naturally been led to combine in practice the simultaneous with the mutual system; hence what is called the mixed mode. It is not our intention to specify the systematic rules of this new mode. Indeed, it is impossible to do so; all depends on the greater or less degree in which either of the components enters into the compound. Now, the proportion is very variable, being affected by the situation, the means, the disposition of the master, and, above all, by the number of pupils. But this variableness, as well as the power which the mixed mode has of adapting itself to it, is precisely what renders the system eminently practical. We shall briefly indicate the essential character of it, and show wherein its unquestionable utility consists.

In the mixed mode, a school is usually divided into two parts. The first consists of the more advanced pupils, the master specially reserving himself for it, and dividing it into two or three sections, organized according to the simultaneous mode. The second consists of the less advanced pupils, whom he divides into several groups, taught by monitors to whom he gives instruction by themselves. Thus, it will be observed, the teaching is simultaneous for the more advanced, mutual for the less advanced pupils. It will also be observed, that the teacher is personally charged with the most important lessons, the most difficult, those which require greatest tact and nicety (such as style of reading, the principles of our own language, arithmetic, geography, history, etc.), and that the monitors have to do chiefly with elementary work, the first stages of reading and writing, practical exercises in drawing and geography, mental calculation, repetitions of various kinds, etc.

With such an organization of instruction, the inconveniences of each of the two component modes are in great measure compensated by the advantages of the other. Thus, the use of monitors makes the lessons more frequent and the work more fruitful than in the purely simultaneous system, and leaves the teacher less pre-occupied with the general surveillance, and more at liberty to devote himself to any lesson he may be giving. And, on the other hand, the direct intervention of the master in all the more important and difficult lessons, provides for the communication of more substantial knowledge, and also for the development of the intellectual and moral powers—much more, at least, than could possibly be done with the very best efforts which the purely mutual mode admits of.

In conclusion, so long as the number of pupils does not exceed forty or fifty, we believe that preference should be given to the simultaneous mode (admitting, however, the propriety in some cases of having an assistant teacher for the younger children). For from 50 to 100 or

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120 pupils, the mixed mode is unquestionably the best, the proportions of the two modes composing it varying chiefly with the number to be taught. When the school contains more than 120, we think that the purely mutual mode is the only one that can be productive of any good; we say so, of course, on the supposition that there is but one master, otherwise, if he had an assistant teacher, or even several assistants (a very fortunate condition, which is now pretty often met with, and which we desire to find still more prevalent), the question as to the modes would assume a very different aspect.

W. Macleod.

VII.—THE KINDERGARTEN.

Considerable notice has of late been attracted in this country by the system of training children in institutions named by their founder *Kindergärten* or Infant-Gardens. In Germany, where Friedrich Fröbel opened the first kindergarten more than twenty-five years ago, his system soon spread. In the stirring times of 1848 it was the subject of discussion in public meetings; and now, when the state of public life in Germany much resembles that immediately before the year '48, it acquires again a national interest, with the advantage of being firmly established in most towns of any consequence, as well as in many smaller places. In the late annual conference of German teachers held at Gera, in the centre of Germany, and referred to in a recent number of this Journal,* the merits of the system were set forth by several of the most distinguished representatives of national education. There was opposition, but not so much against the system as against the demand to have it generally carried out as an integral part of national education. The chief objections to the kindergarten came from Austria. Children, it was said, before they are sent to school, ought to be trained at home, entirely under the care of the parents, particularly of the mothers; the kindergarten which is to receive the children at that early age, would encroach upon family education and family ties. Another objection was that the system was too complicated; yet another, that it professed to teach children how to play, which they ought to be left to learn by themselves. There were, as on former occasions, a great number of ladies among the public audience, and all, it appears, were enthusiastic supporters of the kindergarten system, which, far from depriving the female sex of any influence in education, expressly secures infant training to the care of educated females, mothers, of course, included.

The name of Kindergärten was given to these institutions, which, in fact, are infant-schools, for several reasons. They were not called *schools*, for in these children are trained to *work*, though chiefly with their minds. The term play-school, moreover, would contain a contradiction in terms. Hence the somewhat fanciful, but not altogether

* See *Museum*, vol. ii. p. 493.

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figurative name of kindergarten was selected, allowing the poetical lovers of childhood to indulge in the association of a beautiful garden full of happy children, with that garden of Eden in which the human race spent its infancy.

Before proceeding further, we may state that Friedrich Fröbel, who died eleven years ago, was the son of a clergyman* in Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt. After making physical science and philosophy his study, he was for some time a disciple and assistant of Pestalozzi's at Iverdun. He served as a volunteer under Lützow in the war against Napoleon. Finally, he established, in 1817, a private boarding-school for boys in Keilhau, near Rudolstadt, which from the beginning occupied with credit the rank of a German gymnasium, and which has continued to flourish to this day. Perceiving in his pupils, whom he could not obtain so young as he wished, the harm of previous neglect and injurious influences, he began to turn his mind to the idea of the kindergarten. Leaving the management of his school to some friends, he devoted all his time to the working out of his new plan. He put to himself the question: What will prove the best social institution for assisting families in the training of children, from the age at which they have begun to speak and play with some sense, till they can be sent to school to learn to read, write, and calculate? This problem he tried to solve, and, as far as the trial has gone, it has met with signal success.

When Fröbel established his first kindergarten, in a small town near Rudolstadt, he gained the assistance of several young ladies belonging to educated families, particularly of clergymen, and initiated them into his system. He then lectured on the subject in several towns. In Dresden and Hamburg, where he already found kindergärten conducted by some of his former pupils, he opened classes for ladies, which were well attended. Many of these ladies availed themselves of the opportunity of practically applying the system in the kindergärten placed for this purpose at Fröbel's disposal. All became enthusiastic adherents, and many of them propagators of the system. His lectures on Education attracted large audiences, especially in Hamburg, where they contributed to impress several gifted ladies with a lively feeling of the want of a higher cultivation of the female mind than was generally obtained in ladies' schools. An attempt was made to establish a college for ladies, in which the study of the principles, and the practice of the art of Education, were to be the foundation, the centre of all the other studies, such as Literature, Physical Science, Physiology, Philosophy of the Mind, etc. For female students, desirous of finding a suitable residence, there were to be boarding-houses, some with a kindergarten attached to them, and each superintended by one of the professors, who was to reside in it with his family. The college started prosperously; but soon after, in 1851, Fröbel's system of education was denounced and forbidden by the Prussian Government, at that time the most bigoted and reactionary in Germany. The death of Fröbel followed, and these enterprises suffered a check. The kindergärten,

* Michelet, who greatly recommends his system in *La Femme*, erroneously speaks of him as the son of "un paysan."

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however, though forbidden in Prussia, continued in Hamburg and elsewhere. Even in Berlin, one or two prospered under a changed name. By some ladies of Hamburg, who had supported Fröbel's system, it was, in 1851, introduced into London, where it is now gaining ground and securing zealous advocates. *A Practical Guide to the Kindergarten*, lately published, has already passed through two editions.*

The period of childhood for which the kindergarten is designed, comprises about four years, beginning in the third, or even sooner. It is not designed to supersede family education, where this really exists; it is to supply it where it is not to be found. It is not to break in upon the sacred family tie between parent and child, but to strengthen, to revive it, where civilisation has made it powerless. It is to be an organic link between family and school, improving both. Wherever it can be done, the kindergarten is to be a part of the family establishment, and only where circumstances will not allow this, as in the great majority of cases, it is to be a more detached institution. In all cases it is to be a family arrangement. The system may be applied to the children of the working-classes and of the poor, who have, for the most part, been allowed to be without any proper training, or are crowded into infant asylums. The chief difficulty in this case will always be found in the great numbers of children, as many as 200, brought together to be cared for by one or two females, who will not be able to treat each of them with the same loving care, with which a mother would treat her own child. Where such care is impossible, there can be no kindergarten; there may be an infant-school, an infant-asylum, but no family education. It was particularly for the children of the working population that Samuel Wilderspin worked out his admirable *System of Infant Training*, agreeing in principle entirely with the kindergarten, though in detail the two systems, "invented" at the same time, but quite independently of each other, could not but differ considerably.

The objects of the kindergarten may be considered under three heads. In the *first* place, it is to protect the children from the hurtful Influences of Nature, and from the corruptions of society. *Secondly*, it is to provide the most improving kinds of play and occupation for children, as well as the purest, most devoted moral guidance, where that of the mother has been removed. *Thirdly*, it is to afford the basis of cultivating the art of infant-training, and a knowledge of the principles of education, among females.

To obtain the *first* object, a spacious, airy, dry room with a garden attached to it is to be procured by the united efforts of several neighbouring families. Twelve will be found a convenient average number of children for one kindergarten. There should not be more than

* *A Practical Guide to the English Kindergarten; for the Use of Mothers, Nursery Governesses, and Infant Teachers.* Being an Exposition of Fröbel's System of Infant Training. By Joh. and Bertha Ronge. Second Edition. London: Hudson and Son, 22, Portugal Street, Lincoln's Inn. 1858. This book gives a description of the arrangement of a kindergarten, of the plays and other occupations, as Fröbel combined them, with many illustrations and a number of songs. It deserves to be recommended to the notice of every person interested in education. Fröbel himself published little; he was too busy in elaborating his plan by experiments, and in organizing schools.

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twice that number, nor fewer than half. From room and garden must be removed all objects that might injure the children during their play, or might be destroyed by them. The dress of the children must be simple, calculated to stand tear and wear.

An incalculable amount of moral injury is kept from the children by the kindergarten, which removes them, at least for the best part of the day, from persons unfit for infant-training. All persons are unfit to educate who are themselves not educated, or educated badly, which, with the grown-up persons, comes nearly to the same thing. Therefore all domestic servants are unfit company for children, as was preached by Locke nearly two centuries ago. In the case of mothers alone, and of her nearest female relatives, it may be supposed that love and instinct make up for the want of skill in education to a certain degree. But the females who, as hired servants, have so much to do with the early training of our children, are notoriously incompetent in both respects. Their kindness is apt to turn into flattery, their strictness into cruelty. Many of them are abusive in language, vulgar in sentiment, in behaviour, in everything. Their moral standard is generally low; their opinions and notions are disfigured by prejudices, ignorance, and superstition. Yet it is to these persons that we intrust our children, at the very time that their natures are most tender and pliant, when their dispositions are forming for good or for evil. It is one of the chief merits of the kindergarten system that it saves our little ones from being exposed to such influences, for uneducated females are expressly excluded from all share in their management. At the age in question, moreover, children are particularly unfit for being left to their own society, though they are so much the more benefited by being collected around their trainer. In one sense they are innocent, innocent of the distinction between good and evil, right and wrong. But allow them to congregate as an untended flock, and there shoots forth a growth of rank passions, as anger, violence, cruelty, particularly to animals, destructiveness, jealousy, cowardice, and folly. But bring these children together with their minds turned, not against each other, but towards the superior mind of an educated person among them, who has food for their minds in store; who gives them games and improving occupations; whom, therefore, they love and revere: and their natures seem changed, the animal part tamely serves the angelic. Such is the power of the kindergarten. It is the garden in which the divine part in man is to be cultivated from infancy.

The *second* and positive object of the kindergarten is to supply the children with the favouring influences of Nature and civilisation, and to secure for them the best moral guidance.

Of the natural objects which should surround children, the most beneficial will be the *garden*, with grass-plot, gravelled walks, some banks of sand, clay, or mould, some water, stones, vegetation, more or less according to circumstances. A supply of natural products for play-material, such as leaves, flowers, fruits, seeds, shells, feathers, pebbles, sticks, thorns, bark, moss, etc., will be collected in walks with the children. There is nothing that gives children more improving plea-

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sure than such foraging expeditions, which indeed form an important part of the system. It is wonderful what an infinite variety of purposes such material will be put to spontaneously by the children, how much inventive power it will develop, and how useful all this may be made for a knowledge of Nature at a later stage.

More important for later scientific knowledge are the artificial products which are to serve for playthings. Ready-made toys are almost entirely excluded from the kindergarten, and should be nearly so from the nursery. Their influence is considered of as little value for children, as that of ready-made truths or opinions for scholars, in matters in which, by proper tuition, they ought to be enabled to judge for themselves. The best use that children generally make of toys is to break them by examining how they are made, and what they are composed of, and by trying to make of them something to their own taste. For such naughtiness, which however cannot happen in the kindergarten, they are of course punished in the nursery. Something ready-made, however, is necessary; only it should be simple and not too plentiful. The kindergarten gives what is required in the shape of useful material, and the most simple tools,—cubes, bricks, and mosaic tablets of wood and stone, little sticks of the shape of matches of certain proportionate lengths, for laying figures, or sharpened, to be stuck into softened peas for forming the shapes of crystals and other wonderful structures; paper for folding and cutting out figures and ornaments; clay for modelling; scissors, harmless knives, slates, pencils, and other similar things. Here also it is quite wonderful to see what little children will make of and with such playthings; how much they prefer them to the toys of the old nursery *régime;* how skilful their little hands become; and how much more their minds are intent on constructing than on breaking.

But when the play-room, the garden, and play-things are provided, success will still depend on the manner in which they are used, and therefore on the person who conducts the children's occupations. For this most grateful, though by no means easy duty, a class of persons must be secured who are naturally fond of children, and inclined to enter into their feelings; who easily perceive their wants, and are rich in resources to supply them; persons of a pure loving heart, a cultivated mind, and possessed of the accomplishments which grace our educated females;—for they must be able to sing songs, invent games, tell stories, and draw pictures to illustrate them; know something of natural history; have a distinct notion of the powers of the human mind and the general laws of their development, and understand the principles of moral philosophy,—at all events sufficiently to know that a child must not be treated as a responsible agent, and can hardly deserve punishment any more than an animal or a table. By such a knowledge alone can the gross mistakes so commonly committed in the training of children be avoided.* Excepting mothers, no other class

* We know of persons who, before they were six years old, were taught the multiplication table, and not only spelling and reading, but the Latin declensions, and were soundly whipped for laziness or inattention by a female teacher, who, but for her sex, deserved to be whipped herself.

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of persons can be fit or worthy to reign in the kindergarten but the well-educated and accomplished young ladies of modern society; the very class with whom at present we do not know what to do. Social science is clamorous in demanding for a large portion of that class a more useful employment than to wait for husbands. Let the kindergarten system become general, and the proper employment is found, to the great benefit of every future generation.

It may with reason be maintained, that if every able-bodied man should be prepared to be a soldier, every female should be fully qualified to educate children. The country has not always enemies to be killed, but it has always a young generation to be reared. Rank makes no exception as to the soldiers, so ought also the claim on the female sex to train up the new generation be general. In whatever rank the kindergarten be established, its training will be worthy of an offspring destined to become free moral agents, conscious of immortality. In Germany, the land of education, it has from its beginning been favoured by the great of the land. The mother of the Comte de Paris took her little son to a kindergarten near Eisenach, in which he received some of his earliest education. And princesses have in the kindergarten tried their hand at infant-training.

In the *third* place, then, the kindergarten is to form the basis of cultivating the art of infant-training, and a knowledge of the principles of education, among females. And because education, physical, moral, and intellectual, cannot be made an object of study without being itself acquired both before and through its study, the kindergarten has suggested the plan of connecting with such institutions the highest or finishing education of the female sex. Where there are favourable localities, there are to be established model infant schools for practical demonstrations of the system, with courses for female students in all branches bearing upon the education of children, both within and beyond the limits of the kindergarten. And what sciences and arts do not bear upon this subject! If there be some minimum of knowledge and proficiency in a subject, that must be possessed before it can be taught, there is no maximum that may not be surpassed. The ability to sing a little song well, and accompany the children on the piano which belongs to the kindergarten, will not be impaired by such proficiency as will do for the drawing-room. To draw a scene, including animals and persons, on a school board—the greatest delight of the little listeners to a wonderful story composed, of course, or arranged by the drawer herself—though not requiring the talent of a Rosa Bonheur, may test the skill of an artist. To make a set of little boys form the five regular solids with sticks stuck into softened peas, and likewise pyramids, prisms, plane figures, etc., and give them the right names; or to divide a cube into its fractional parts, and let the children perceive that—one-eighth is exactly two-fourths!—according to the notions of some elder arithmeticians, who guess that a twentieth must be two-tenths—these mathematical plays, the most improving of the kindergarten, demand a knowledge of geometry the sounder the better. Why do young ladies learn geometry? Here is a useful and worthy object!

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But there is much more to be done. Children will as easily learn French and German songs in the kindergarten, as they learn to talk French or German in the nursery. Then there are a thousand questions about matters of natural history and physics—"Why does the brook always flow? Why does a ball fall, a soap-bubble rise? Why do stones from a plum-pie not grow? Why do flowers stuck in the sand wither so soon?" The wisdom of the deepest philosopher may be insufficient for answering some of these; but a judicious reply, striking out the first spark of reflection, may start the germ for the later researches of a Newton. Such finishing classes for the female sex belong as a necessary part to Fröbel's system, for without them there will be no qualified persons to conduct a kindergarten.

The most essential part of the whole system is the methodical arrangement of the exercises and the games, and the explanations given by Fröbel for those who are to conduct them. To know them all is quite a study; to apply them well, an art; to understand their significance, their effect, the order and manner in which they ought to be given to the children, is a science. The infant-trainer must know what to select from the great store, so as to suit the different ages; how long to continue one exercise, so as not to overstretch the faculties. There is great power united in her hands, and, not to misuse it, she must well understand the infant-nature on which it is exercised.

The kindergarten proceeds from the Pestalozzian system. Some of its principles were already laid down by Locke. It forms one of the consequences of that principle of modern education which aims at the perfect cultivation of the human individual. *Individual perfection*, this is to be the grand result of education; and the way to it—the method—is the free development of the mental faculties. Fröbel saw this principle enjoined by Christianity: "Be ye therefore perfect, even as your Father in heaven is perfect," and considered his system eminently Christian. He tried to carry out the developing method in all branches of instruction in his school at Keilhau, and then applied it to infant-training. This method may be defined as education guided by a true knowledge of human nature, or by the philosophy of the human mind. A little of that knowledge shows, that the education of the youngest requires the greatest skill, because everything belonging to their education must be done for them, whilst, as they grow older, they learn more and more to educate themselves, till, at the age of manhood (with men about the twenty-first year), they are left to self-education. Thus, as young people grow older, the educator has less and less to do for them. When with the sixth or seventh year the child begins to reflect, he is capable of conceiving general purposes, though in particular cases, and of employing means for them, that is, of *working*. His *trying* to get and use the means for the end is *learning*. Now the child is fit for school. The occupations of the kindergarten, however, are merely a play of learning, a playing at school, and in this sense the kindergarten is a *play-school*, in which, if children are not exactly taught to play, they are guided how to play. They are full of activity, and all that is wanted is the supply of proper material, and liberty to

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exert their powers upon it. These powers are imagination, first betrayed by *imitation*, and the impulse of the will to produce some certain result.

The first plays are imitations of motions and actions which the children have perceived, and which the trainer takes advantage of, in order to teach them graceful motions of their limbs and bodies. Of the quiet games, the most simple are those with the natural products obtained in the walks. Next come those with the divided cube, for which each child is supplied with a box containing a cube divided either in eight cubes, in eight bricks, or in twenty-seven cubes, some with diagonal sections, or in twenty-seven bricks with subdivisions. These parts are first applied to the construction of familiar objects, as houses, chairs, tables; everything which may be included under the *forms of use*, and which are interesting even to the youngest. The *forms of beauty* and symmetry require more sense. And last of all come the *forms of knowledge*, which familiarize them with the properties of the cube, and the names of its sides and lines. Then tablets are introduced, some of equilateral-triangular shape, which impress them with the peculiarity of the numbers three, six, nine, as squares do with the numbers two, four, eight. At last, sticks and peas, or sticks alone, serve as material for forms of use, of beauty, and of knowledge. The latter may lead far into a knowledge, of course merely intuitive, of geometrical relations and laws. But we have no room for this interesting detail.

The age of from three to seven years seems to be the period of phantastic invention, in which latent genius is formed, and which may be compared with the ploughing and sowing season of husbandry. This most important season of childhood, however, how often is it allowed to pass neglected! Poor children in the country are often better provided with right occupations than the children of the rich, which may in some measure account for the genius which springs up in country cottages.

It will thus be observed, that the material given to the children is at first the most natural, and is followed by the more and more artificial. The latter, again, is given at first in the most simple and palpable shape, and is followed by representations of abstractions more and more removed from the concrete. The highest intellectual effort in the kindergarten is the Pestalozzian *form-drawing* on slates, or drawing-books ruled over with small squares. This drawing, though entirely under the rule of imagination, prepares for proper drawing, for writing, and for geometry, better than anything else. Children at an early age become excessively fond of it, consider it quite as an amusement, and yet will work at it for an hour without getting tired, so that it may be necessary to check their eagerness.

Of poetry, accompanied by music, great use is made in the kindergarten, which offers a most extensive field of renown to the poetical and musical genius of ladies who love children and the pure joys of their paradise. In Germany, Hofmann von Fallersleben has shown, by his "*Kinderlieder*," that verses which please little children may have poetical charms for every period of life; and some of the best

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composers have added to the beauty of the words by their graceful compositions.

The first visible effect of a well-conducted kindergarten on the children, is that it tames them. They soon betray that their happiness is increased. Though more gentle, they become more lively. Their affection for their trainer, *die kindergärtnerin*, is great; yet their love to their parents does not seem to diminish. It is found that at home they are much more quiet, because they soon find a quiet amusement, and eagerly engage in it. The genial occupation of their brain, combined with the bodily exercises, and the happy humour in which they seem to be for hours when in the kindergarten, cannot but favour an increase of their natural faculties. There has been a complaint, that when children from the kindergarten are sent to schools, they become restless and inattentive, particularly in large classes. The fault may in this case be with the school, not with the kindergarten. A most loyal Englishman, transplanted across the Channel, may not only be found most troublesome, but have to suffer in prison as a rebellious subject. Children learn order in the kindergarten, even military order in their occupations, but they do not learn to sit idle, to do what they do not understand, to listen to what cannot interest them, what gives them nothing to do, merely something to suffer.

A generation that has passed through the developing system which begins in the kindergarten, will have learned self-command or virtue, will be possessed of pure and genuine taste, and will be independent in thought and action. As a striking testimony to this effect, we may take the proceedings of the Prussian Government against that system since 1850. Fichte, in his *Reden an die Deutsche Nation*, had recommended national education on the developing system; Jahn applied it to physical education by his *Turnwesen*, or gymnastics, which quickly spread over Germany, and was as quickly put down as politically dangerous. Fröbel tried to apply it to general education; but the German governments, particularly Austria and Prussia, were frightened at the spirit of independence from which the system proceeded, and which it fostered. Prussia, receding more and more from her glorious efforts of 1813, has now almost eradicated the developing principle from her national education, once so renowned. But a better spirit is alive again in Germany. *Turnen* is again flourishing, and national education on the developing principle again appears as one of the great objects of the interest of the German nation.

The consequences of the kindergarten system on the female portion of the population will proceed from two sources at once; from the better training of the children, and from the more complete education of those who are to train them. The advantages of a system, which places infant-training in the hands of educated females, can perhaps not be too highly estimated. In Germany the success of the system is, by the opinion of a large party, identified with the realization of "*the true mission of women.*"

KARL FRÖBEL.

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VIII.—PROFESSOR CONINGTON'S HORACE.*

WITHIN the last five years three complete and very elaborate versions of the *Odes of Horace* have been given to the public. Professor Conington, who fills the Latin Chair† at Oxford, was preceded in his present undertaking by Lord Ravensworth in 1858, and by Mr. Theodore Martin in 1860. We have no hesitation whatever in pronouncing the Professor's book to be the best of the three, and by implication the best completed version in existence.

It is not hard to distinguish and to point out the chief differences of method and workmanship in these translations. Lord Ravensworth received hard measure from the critics, far harder than, in our opinion, he deserved. He is a scholar well read in the classics of his own country, no less than in those of Rome during the Augustan age. But, imbued with the literary spirit of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, he has a strong leaning, as a translator, to the diffuse and paraphrastic style. He is perfectly well aware of this tendency to follow Dryden, and gives some excellent reasons for indulging it. His power of versification, in the manner of his choice, is by no means small; and much of his performance is graced by a charm of its own, but a charm which is all the while different from the charm of Horace. His ordinary manner is exactly conveyed by this rendering of the opening lines in the *Non usitatâ*:—

"Me shall no feeble pinion bear
In ordinary flight,
Sublimely soaring through the air
To realms of liquid light:
A power divine exalts my fair renown
High o'er the vulgar crowd and envious town.

"What though of humble parents born,
To me no clients bend;
Thou dost not, oh! Mæcenas, scorn
To call the bard thy friend;
Nor shall I moulder in oblivion's grave,
Nor linger captive by the Stygian wave."

These lines are easy and pleasant enough, but it is needless to observe that the last but one is wholly unrepresented in the original. Again, compare the following lines from the well-known passage in the *Odi profanum* (III. i. 13) with Professor Conington's version:—

"Behold, what troops of clients greet
A fourth, as passing down the street
He threads the crowd; but Fate
Allots to each his equal share,
And Death's capacious urn shall bear
The names of small and great."

* *The Odes and Carmen Sæculare of Horace, translated into English Verse.* By John Conington, M.A., Corpus Professor of Latin in the University of Oxford. London, Bell and Daldy, 1863.

† A professorship quite recently instituted, and not without some discussion as to its necessity. Mr. Conington was appointed, as the first professor, in 1854.

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The Professor's more concise and far neater rendering is—

> "One plumes him on a larger crowd
> Of clients. What are great or small?
> Death takes the mean man with the proud;
> The fatal urn has room for all."

To turn to Mr. Martin's book, the author's surprising facility in writing is at once the excellence and the bane of his work. That he is not what at Cambridge and Oxford is understood by a scholar, a hundred passages might be brought forward to show. No degree of power and brilliancy will make up for the want of that delicacy and careful finish which is so strong a characteristic of the best Greek and Latin classics, and especially of Horace; and which is the indispensable qualification of a really trustworthy editor or translator of his remains. Take a slip such as (ii. 20)—

> "And view *Hyperborēan* lands;"

or so manifest a mistake as (i. 8)—

> "Why, Lydia, why,
> I pray, by all the gods above,
> Art so *resolved that Sybaris should die,*
> *And all for love?*"

To drag in the English phrase of "dying for love," alongside of *perdere amando*, is hopelessly to confuse the sense, which is like the Greek φθείρειν ἔρωτι, and is exactly rendered by Professor Conington's—

> "Lydia, by all above,
> Why bear so hard on Sybaris, *to ruin him with love?*"

Points like these, however small in themselves, connote great part of the difference between a merely clever writer, and a clever writer who is also a scholar.

If Professor Conington's manipulation of English is less conspicuously successful than that of his brilliant predecessor, he has claims of another kind which more than compensate for an occasional specimen of strained or quaint rendering. He is one of the foremost champions, perhaps the foremost, of exact scholarship in a University which, to say the least, runs no danger at present of overrating it. From various causes, Cambridge has grown to be a more congenial home than Oxford for the scholarship of Bentley, Porson, and Gaisford. Judging, among other signs, from the tone of criticism on Mr. Conington's recent instalment of his labours on Virgil, there are those who hold that the Oxford Latin Professor might venture on a wider flight than the mere editing of a text. We cannot, however, avoid the reflection that the present Professor has done Oxford good service in adhering to a conservative line of scholarship. With characteristic and almost excessive scrupulosity, he has followed the Horatian rule—

> "Versate diu, quid ferre recusent
> Quid valeant humeri."

And, if he has not bewildered the heads of undergraduates by leading

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them into *Syrtes Œstuosas* of comparative philology, he has done much and excellently towards vindicating the traditional allegiance paid to some great familiar names of classical learning. Thoroughness, not dash and ostentation, has been the maxim of his Chair during the nine years that he has filled it. And this is the leading feature of his translation of the Odes.

With a single exception,* he is the only translator of Horace who has not only imposed on himself the restraint of metrical correspondence with the original, but has submitted to the yoke through the whole of the Four Books. His views are thus clearly stated in the preface :—

"The first thing at which, as it seems to me, a Horatian translator ought to aim, is some kind of metrical conformity to his original. Without this we are in danger of losing not only the metrical, but the general effect of the Latin; we express ourselves in a different compass, and the character of the expression is altered accordingly. For instance, one of Horace's leading features is his occasional sententiousness. It is this, perhaps more than anything else, that has made him a storehouse of quotations. He condenses a general truth in a few words, and thus makes his wisdom portable. '*Non, si male nunc et olim, sic erit ;*' '*Nihil est ab omni parte beatum ;*' '*Omnes eodem cogimur*,'—these and similar expressions remain in the memory when other features of Horace's style, equally characteristic, but less obvious, are forgotten. It is almost impossible for a translator to do justice to this sententious brevity, unless the stanza in which he writes is in some sort analogous to the metre of Horace. If he chooses a longer and more diffuse measure, he will be apt to spoil the proverb by expansion; not to mention that much will often depend on the very position of the sentence in the stanza. Perhaps, in order to preserve these external peculiarities, it may be necessary to recast the expression, to substitute, in fact, one form of proverb for another; but this is far preferable to retaining the words in a diluted form, and so losing what gives them their character. I cannot doubt, then, that it is necessary in translating an Ode of Horace to choose some analogous metre; as little can I doubt that a translator of the Odes should appropriate to each Ode some particular metre as its own."

Admitting that the Alcaic is used indifferently for a solemn strain like the *Justum ac tenacem*, and a poem in "praise of love or wine," and that the loves of Mæcenas and Licymnia are described in the same Asclepiad metre that conveys the lament for Quinctilius, he still thinks it better to make an English metre more flexible than to use two different English metres to express two different aspects of one measure in Latin. So far from advocating the transference into English of the identical Horatian metres, the Professor regards the case of the hexameter as quite sufficient to occupy the literary tribunals, and thinks that to raise any discussion on the rights of other "struggling aliens" would be premature. Of the attempts made by the late Arthur Clough he speaks, with excellent judgment, as follows :—

"They may be found in a paper which he contributed to the fourth volume of the *Classical Museum*, and a perusal of them will, I think, be likely to convince the reader that the task is one in which even great rhythmical power and mastery of language would be far from certain of succeeding. Even the Alcaic fragment which he has inserted in his *Amours de Voyage*,—

* Professor F. W. Newman, whose quaint and rugged English interferes with his great qualifications as a scholar, and reduces many of his versions to the level of mere literary curiosities.

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'Eager for battle here
Stood Vulcan, here matronal Juno,
And with the bow to his shoulder faithful
He who with pure dew laveth of Castaly
His flowing locks, who holdeth of Lycia
The oak forest and the wood that bore him,
Delos' and Patara's own Apollo;'—

admirably finished as it is, and highly pleasing as a fragment, scarcely persuades us that twenty stanzas of the same workmanship would be read with adequate pleasure, still less that the same satisfaction would be felt through six-and-thirty Odes. After all, however, a sober critic will be disposed rather to pass judgment on the past than to predict the future, knowing, as he must, how easily the '*solvitur ambulando*' of an artist like Mr. Tennyson may disturb a whole chain of ingenious reasoning on the possibilities of things."

The Professor's own rendering of the Alcaic stanza is in quatrains of eight-syllable lines, and with alternate rhymes. The example from a famous ode (III. iii.) will give a good idea of the general effect:—

"The man of firm and righteous will,
No rabble, clamorous for the wrong,
No tyrant's brow, whose frown may kill,
Can shake the strength that makes him strong:
Not winds, that chafe the sea they sway,
Nor Jove's right hand, with lightning red,
Should Nature's pillar'd frame give way,
That wreck would strike one fearless head.
Pollux and roving Hercules
Thus won their way to Heaven's proud steep."

Among several possible measures which presented themselves for choice as the fit modes of reproducing the Alcaic, the stanza of *In Memoriam* is regarded by Mr. Conington as possessing strong claims. He even thinks it probable that by-and-by it may come to be the regular representative of this metre in English; but believes it impossible for any but a great master to employ it during the present generation without catching, as C. S. C.* has done, the Tennysonian manner, which is "not the manner of Horace." How true this last remark is, may be seen *passim* in the clever renderings of C. S. C., who applies the *In Memoriam* stanza to the third Asclepiad as well as the Alcaic. The following lines are as unlike the dirge for Quinctilius as they are like the dirge for Arthur Hallam:—

"Sleeps he the sleep that knows no morn?
Oh, Honour, oh, twin-born with Right,
Pure Faith, and Youth that loves the light,
When shall again his like be born?

The following versions of well-known passages will show the measures which the Professor has adopted for three other familiar Horatian stanzas, the Sapphic, the fourth Asclepiad, and the third Asclepiad:—

"*Persicos odi.*

No Persian cumber, boy, for me;
I hate your garlands linden-plaited;
Leave winter's rose where on the tree
It hangs belated.

* The author of *Poems and Translations.* By C. S. C. Bell and Daldy, 1863.

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Wreath me plain myrtle; never think
Plain myrtle either 's wear unfitting,
Yours as you wait, mine as I drink
In vine-bower sitting."

"*Quis multa gracilis.*

What slender youth, besprinkled with perfume,
Courts you on roses in some grotto's shade?
Fair Pyrrha, say, for whom
Your yellow hair you braid,
So trim, so simple! Ah! how oft shall he
Lament that faith can fail, that gods can change,
Viewing the rough black sea
With eyes to tempests strange,
Who now is basking in your golden smile,
And dreams of you still fancy-free, still kind,
Poor fool, nor knows the guile
Of the deceitful wind!
Woe to the eyes you dazzle without cloud
Untried! For me they show in yonder fane
My dripping garments, vow'd
To Him who curbs the main."

"*Inclusam Danaen.*

Full well had Danae been secured, in truth,
By oaken portals, and a brazen tower,
And savage watch-dogs, from the roving youth
That prowl at midnight's hour;
But Jove and Venus mock'd with gay disdain
The jealous warder of that close stronghold:
The way, they knew, must soon be smooth and plain
When gods could change to gold."

The third Asclepiad is rendered, as will at once be seen, by the stanza of *The Dream of Fair Women*, which has been handled by the Professor without the smallest approach to mannerism, and which is perhaps less open to it than the measure of *In Memoriam*.

The exceedingly ingenious and graceful rendering of the *Miserarum est*, the only specimen in the four books of the metre known as Ionic *a minore*, is too good to be passed over:—

"How unhappy are the maidens who with Cupid may not play,
Who may never touch the wine-cup, but must tremble all the day
At an uncle, and the scourging of his tongue!
Neobule, there 's a robber takes your needle and your thread,
Lets the lessons of Minerva run no longer in your head;
It is Hebrus, the athletic and the young!
Oh, to see him when anointed he is plunging in the flood!
What a seat he has on horseback! was Bellerophon's as good?
As a boxer, as a runner, past compare!
When the deer are flying blindly all the open country o'er,
He can aim and he can hit them; he can steal upon the boar,
As it couches in the thicket unaware."

The greatest pains have clearly been taken with the apportionment of the *ictus* here. For though the number of syllables, excepting in every third line, is the same as in the trochaic of *Locksley Hall*, yet the effect is, as it is intended to be, widely different. This trochaic is admirably employed by Professor Conington in rendering the *Tu ne quæsieris*, and similar odes:—

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"Ask not ('tis forbidden knowledge) what our destined term of years,
Mine and yours; nor scan the tables of your Babylonish seers;
Better far to bear the future, my Leuconoë, like the past,
Whether Jove has many winters yet to give, or this our last."

Lord Ravensworth has adopted the notion of many commentators, that the little ode to Neobule is ironical from beginning to end; and that, because the island of Lipara happened to be the site of Vulcan's smoky forge, the name of Hebrus is therefore intended humorously to glance at an "old, dirty, scrubby fellow, who had succeeded in corrupting the girl." Orelli mentions the suggestion only to reject it; and neither Mr. Martin nor Professor Conington allude to it. The facile, but jerky and unworthy version of this ode by Mr. Martin, forms a poor contrast with the lines quoted above:—

"Cytherea's winged urchin
From thee doth beguile
Thy work-box, and Hebrus
Of Lipara's isle
From thy broidery weans thee,
And all the hard lore,
Which thou, Neobule,
Didst toil at of yore."

It is almost unnecessary to say that a translator like the Professor has brought to his work the gains of a ripe knowledge of our own best native writers both of the past and present. Mr. Arnold's beautiful line—

"The unplumb'd, salt, *estranging* sea,"

furnishes a version for *Oceano dissociabili* (I. iii. 22)—

"Heaven's high providence in vain
Has sever'd countries with the *estranging* main."

So, in the rendering of *tinget mero pavimentum* (II. xiv. 27)—

"And richer *spilth* the pavement stain
Than e'er at pontiff's supper ran,"

the underlined word is from *Timon of Athens*. And the passage *Sæpe Diespiter* (III. ii. 29)—

"*True men and thieves*
Neglected justice oft confounds,"

recalls a familiar scene in *Henry* IV.

Professor Conington's weakness probably lies in a slightly defective ear. But the instances of this defect which admit of clear definition are so rare, that one example will be enough to cite. None but a writer whose ear might occasionally play him false could have written the last three lines in the version of *O Navis, referent*—

"Your trouble late made sad this heart of mine,
And still I love you, *still am ill* at ease.
O *shun* the sea, where *shine*
The *thick-sown Cyclades*."

C. S. C., a decidedly inferior translator, but a writer of truer perception in matters like this, renders thus—

"Flee—what of late sore burden was to me,
Now a sad memory and a bitter pain;
Those shining Cyclades flee
That stud the far-off main."

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The excessively prosaic rendering of *Cur timet flavum Tiberim tangere* (I. viii. 8)—

"Why keeps he yellow Tiber off *from contact with his frame?*"

would deserve further remark, did we not believe the translator to have used the phrase on purpose, as suited to the unnatural daintiness of the altered Sybaris.

On comparing Professor Conington's verse-translation of the *Agamemnon* with his present volume, it is impossible not to be struck with the advance made by him since that early performance. Translation is a kind of literary work on which practice tells more strikingly than on any other. And, if we may argue from the past to the future, we should be far from unwilling to hear that a new version of the *Æneid* had been taken in hand by its most recent English editor.

H. M.

IX.—CURRENT LITERATURE—HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

1. *The Invasion of the Crimea: its Origin, and an Account of its Progress down to the Death of Lord Raglan.* By Alexander William Kinglake. Third Edition. Vols. I. II. Blackwoods, 1863.
2. *The Polish Captivity: an Account of the Present Condition of the Poles in the Kingdom of Poland, and in the Polish Provinces of Austria, Prussia, and Russia.* By Sutherland Edwards. Two vols. Allen, 1863.
3. *Journals and Correspondence of Thomas Sedgewick Whalley, D.D.* Edited, with a Memoir and Illustrative Notes, by the Rev. Hill Wickham, M.A., Rector of Horsington. Two vols. Bentley, 1863.
4. *The History of the Jews, from the Earliest Period down to Modern Times.* By Henry Hart Milman, D.D., Dean of St. Paul's. Third Edition, thoroughly revised and extended. Three vols. Murray, 1863.
5. *History of England from the Accession of James I. to the Disgrace of Chief-Justice Coke,* 1603-1616. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, late Student of Christ Church. Two vols. Hurst & Blackett, 1863.
6. *A History of England during the Reign of George the Third.* By William Massey, M.P. Vol. IV. 1793-1802. Parker, 1863.
7. *The Life of Sir James Graham.* By J. M'Cullagh Torrens. Two vols. Saunders, Otley, & Co., 1863.
8. *A Memoir of Charles James Blomfield, Bishop of London.* With Selections from his Correspondence. Edited by his Son, Alfred Blomfield, M.A. Two vols. Murray, 1863.
9. *Life of the Rev. James Robertson, D.D., F.R.S.E., Professor of Divinity and Ecclesiastical History in the University of Edin-*

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burgh. By the Rev. A. H. Charteris, M.A. Blackwood & Sons, 1863.

I. The principle that foreigners are contemporaneous posterity, was never acted on more freely or more boldly than by Mr. Kinglake, in his much-abused but fascinating *Invasion of the Crimea.* He speaks of Frenchmen still alive, especially of Louis Napoleon and the "small knot of middle-aged men who were pushing their fortunes in Paris" in 1851, with the same freedom and severity as he might employ in writing about the elder Napoleon, or Tippoo Saib, or the Pretender. He applies the scarifying knife to their characters; he lays bare what he conceives to have been their motives; he sneers at their mistakes, and ridicules their failures, as if they had lived a century ago. In short, he sinks altogether the fact, that many of the men whom he handles with such refined cruelty are still alive; or rather, that fact gives greater keenness to his knife, greater zest to his thrusts; in the same way as a sportsman's gusto increases when his shot takes effect, not upon a dead carcase, but upon a living body. Indeed, Mr. Kinglake's process of historical investigation is not so much an experiment as an operation; he deals less in chemical tests than in surgical cuts; and he shows the least possible inclination for the use of anæsthetics. Our readers will remember the lines in Mr. Tennyson's ode—

> "True, we have a faithful ally,
> But only the devil knows what he means;"

but Mr. Kinglake professes to "know what he means" to an extent which either contradicts the Laureate's line, or else confirms it in a sense very disagreeable for Mr. Kinglake.

Indeed, there seems ground for the remark, not now made for the first time, that it appears as if the work—as a "Roundabout History"—had been undertaken solely for the purpose of introducing the digression of a hundred and ten pages, in which the career of the French Emperor is so minutely described and so mercilessly assailed. We might search the whole range of literature in vain for an equally keen, skilful, and elaborately cruel example of the anatomy of living character. This has been, in some quarters, seriously objected to, as insulting to our "faithful ally." With the objection in this form we cannot sympathize. It seems to overlook the clear distinction that must at all times be drawn between an individual and an official or national expression of opinion. Indeed the objection, as usually stated, appears to attach far more importance to Mr. Kinglake's work than the literary production of any single man is entitled to; and it at the same time proceeds upon a totally false theory of international relationship. Mr. Kinglake must not be allowed to have the credit of compromising his country, or even his own character as a bold politician, by what he has written. Whether he may not have, to some extent, forfeited his reputation as an artistic historian thereby is a different question. And here, as it seems to us, the weak point of this work really lies.

Mr. Kinglake was unquestionably at liberty to say all the severe

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and bitter things he has said against Louis Napoleon; but he was not entitled to couple, and so to identify, his caustic *exposé* of the machinations of his "middle-aged" French adventurers with the memory of one so noble, and so far removed from every splenetic littleness, as was Lord Raglan, the ostensible hero of his work. Of the personal offence he has given to the French Emperor, Mr. Kinglake must bear, as he is doubtless prepared to do, the personal or political consequences. What we have to do with is the literary blunder he has committed in going out of his way to give that offence, in choosing—if not the wrong time—certainly the wrong place to give his enemy a castigation. For a man to attack his rival in his friend's drawing-room is insulting: to do so at his grave is positive desecration.

This error in the conception and structure of the work becomes more glaring in the elaboration of its details. He represents Louis Napoleon as a gloomy and irresolute dreamer, but easily cast down when he encounters the realities of the world; so despondent and weak in action that he owes his success to the friends, stronger-willed than himself, such as Fleury and Morny, who had actually to hound him on in the execution of his own designs. In his whole career, in his whole moral nature, he gives him credit for being no more than a clever imitator. "It is certain," he says, "that with a pen in his hand, and with sufficient time for preparation, he could imitate very neatly the scrupulous language of a man of honour." His attempt at Strasbourg in 1836 was no more than a melo-dramatic version of the "Return from Elba;" his attempt at Boulogne was "another 'Return from Elba,' this time with new dresses and decorations." It is impossible to avoid the feeling that there is more than historical honesty, that there is keen feeling, intense personal hatred in every thrust here. No doubt it makes Napoleon appear somewhat ridiculous; but it does not elevate Mr. Kinglake. And he all but forfeits that credit, that commanding influence with his readers which makes the historian, when he stoops to such tricks of his art as that of repeating, over and over again, when he has occasion to mention De Maupas and St. Arnaud, the stinging innuendos, "Maupas or De Maupas, and St. Arnaud, formerly Le Roy."

His full-length portrait of Louis Napoleon occupies some sixteen pages, from which we quote the following passage, as a specimen of Mr. Kinglake's style of historical dissection:—

"But the President of the Republic was Prince Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the statutory heir of the first French Emperor.* The election which made him the chief of the State had been conducted with perfect fairness, and since it happened that in former years he had twice engaged in enterprises which aimed at the throne of France, he had good right to infer that the millions of citizens who elected him into the Presidency, were willing to use his ambition as a means of restoring to France a monarchical form of government.

"But if he had been open in disclosing the ambition which was almost cast upon him by the circumstances of his birth, he had been as successful as the first Brutus in passing for a man of a poor intellect. Both in France and in England at that time men in general imagined him to be dull. When he talked, the flow of his ideas was sluggish: his features were opaque; and after years of dreary studies, the writings evolved by his thoughtful, long-pondering mind had not shed

* *i.e.*, by the Senatus-Consulte of 1804.

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much light on the world. Even the strange ventures in which he had engaged had failed to win towards him the interest which commonly attaches to enterprise. People in London who were fond of having gatherings of celebrated characters never used to present him to their friends as a serious pretender to a throne, but rather as though he were a balloon-man, who had twice had a fall from the skies, and was still in some measure alive. Yet the more men knew him in England, the more they liked him. He entered into English pursuits and rode fairly to hounds. He was friendly, social, good-humoured, and willing enough to talk freely about his views upon the throne of France. The sayings he uttered about his 'destiny' were addressed (apparently as a matter of policy) to casual acquaintance, but to his intimate friends he used the language of a calculating and practical aspirant to Empire.

"The opinion which men had formed of his ability in the period of exile was not much altered by his return to France; for in the Assembly his apparent want of mental power caused the world to regard him as harmless, and in the chair of the President he commonly seemed to be torpid. But there were always a few who believed in his capacity, and observant men had latterly remarked that from time to time there appeared a State Paper, understood to be the work of the President, which teemed with thought, and which showed that the writer, standing solitary and apart from the gregarious nation of which he was the chief, was able to contemplate it as something external to himself. His long, endless study of the mind of the first Napoleon had caused him to adopt and imitate the Emperor's habit of looking down upon the French people, and treating the mighty nation as a substance to be studied and controlled by a foreign brain. Indeed, during the periods of his imprisonment and of his exile, the relations between him and the France of his studies were very like the relations between an anatomist and a corpse. He lectured upon it; he dissected its fibres; he explained its functions; he showed how beautifully Nature in her infinite wisdom had adapted it to the service of the Bonapartes; and how, without the fostering care of those same Bonapartes, the creature was doomed to degenerate, and to perish out of the world."

We owe this work to the fact, that in 1856 Lady Raglan placed in Mr. Kinglake's hands all the papers Lord Raglan had with him at his death. His inquiries addressed to French commanders have been fully and courteously answered; but the French War Department declined, either directly or indirectly, to put their papers within his reach. And, strangely enough, any obscurity which might have resulted from this concealment has been effectually dissipated "by information afterwards obtained from Russian sources." Mr. Kinglake had further the advantage of being an eye-witness of many of the scenes he so vividly describes; and perhaps it is this circumstance which, in part at least, makes his reference to authorities so sparing and so vague.

The first volume is occupied with the "transactions which brought on the war." He there reviews the whole of what is known as the "Eastern Question," and the position of the Turkish Empire, in relation to the "foreign affairs" of the different European powers. It is in connexion with this part of his subject that he indulges in the long digression on the career of the French Emperor, to which we have already referred. His justification of this digression is, that one of the main causes of the war is to be found in the necessity under which the young French Government lay of diverting the minds of the glory-loving French people from home affairs by the excitement of a foreign war. The other causes were the ambition of Russia, and the pusillanimity of England, haunted by "the thin phantom of the Peace party."

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Masterly as this comprehensive view of the state of Europe must be admitted to be, the reader is glad to escape from its diplomatic meshes and its political diatribes, to the more stirring events of the second volume. For this part of the work we have no words but those of praise. It is inwrought with every grace of style, and adorned with every touch of poetic feeling which the author of *Eöthen* could command. Details the most minute and multifarious are grouped and marshalled with the skill of a general. The description of the Battle of the Alma, which occupies the last three hundred pages of the second volume, is perhaps the most wonderful word-painted Battle-piece in the language. We are carried in it from army to army, from division to division, over every part of the field; we are shown how every regiment was occupied during every hour of the day; we are made to understand the relative positions of the two (or rather of the three) armies at every critical moment; yet there is no confusion, no unnecessary repetition, no painful dislocations of the interest with which we follow the whole scheme of the battle. And through this masterly description there are scattered passages of tenderest poetry, and of thrilling power. As an example of this, let the following extract suffice:—

THE TAKING OF THE GREAT REDOUBT.

"And now, whilst the assailing force was rent from front to rear with grape and canister poured down from the heavy guns above, another and a not less deadly arm was brought to bear against it; for the enemy marched a body of infantry into the rear of the breastwork; and his helmeted soldiers, kneeling behind the parapet at the intervals between the embrasures, watched, ready with their muskets on the earthwork till they thought our people were near enough, and then fired into the crowd. Moreover, the troops on either flank of the redoubt began to fire obliquely into the assailing mass.

"Then, for such of our men as were new to war, it became time to learn that the ear is a false guide in the computation of passing shot; and that amid notes sounding like a very torrent of balls, the greater part of even a crowded force may remain unhurt. The storm of rifle and musket balls, of grape and canister, came in blasts; and though there were pauses, yet whilst a blast was sweeping through, it seemed to any young soldier, guided by the sound of the rushing missiles, that nowhere betwixt them, however closely he might draw in his limbs, could there be room for him to stand unscathed. But no man shrank. Our soldiers, still panting with the violence of their labour in crossing the river and scaling the bank, scarcely fired a shot, and they did not speak; but they, every one, went forward. The truth is, that the weak-hearted men had been left behind in the gardens and buildings of the village; the dross was below, and the force on the hill-side was pure metal. It was so intent on its purpose, that no one, they say, at this time, was seen to cast back a look towards the 1st Division.

"The assailants were nearing the breastwork, when, after a lull of a few moments, its ordnance all thundered at once, or at least so nearly at the same moment that the pathway of their blast was a broad one; and there were many who fell; but the onset of our soldiery was becoming a rush. Codrington, riding in front of the men, gaily cheered them on; and all who were not struck down by shot pressed on towards the long bank of smoke which lay dimly enfolding the redoubt.

"But already—though none of the soldiery engaged then knew who wrought the spell—a hard stress had been put upon the enemy. For a while, indeed, the white bank of smoke, lit through here and there with the slender flashes of musketry, stood fast in the front of the parapet, and still all but shrouded the helmets and the glittering bayonets within; but it grew more thin: it began to rise; and, rising, it disclosed a grave change in the counsels of the Russian Generals. Some English-

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man—or many, perhaps, at the same moment—looking keen through the smoke, saw teams of artillery-horses moving, and there was a sound of ordnance-wheels. Our panting soldiery broke from their silence. 'By all that is holy! he is limbering up!' 'He is carrying off his guns!' 'Stole away! Stole away! Stole away!' The glacis of the Great Redoubt had come to sound more joyous than the covert's side in England.

"The embrasures were empty, and in rear of the Work, long artillery-teams—eight-horse and ten-horse teams—were rapidly dragging off the guns.

"Then a small childlike youth ran forward before the throng, carrying a colour. This was young Anstruther. He carried the Queen's colour of the Royal Welsh. Fresh from the games of English school-life, he ran fast; for, heading all who strove to keep up with him, he gained the redoubt, and dug the butt-end of the flagstaff into the parapet; and there for a moment he stood, holding it tight, and taking breath. Then he was shot dead; but his small hands, still clasping the flagstaff, drew it down along with him, and the crimson silk lay covering the boy with its folds; but only for a moment, because William Evans, a swift-footed soldier, ran forward, gathered up the flag, and, raising it proudly, made claim to the Great Redoubt on behalf of the 'Royal Welsh.' The colours floating high in the air, and seen by our people far and near, kindled in them a raging love for the ground where it stood. Breathless men found speech. Codrington, still in the front, uncovered his head, waved his cap for a sign to his people, and then, riding straight at one of the embrasures, leapt his grey Arab into the breastwork. There were some eager and swift-footed soldiers who sprang the parapet nearly at the same moment; more followed. At the same instant Norcott's riflemen came running in from the east, and the swiftest of them bounded into the work at its right flank. The enemy's still lingering skirmishers began to fall back, and descended—some of them slowly—into the dip where their battalions were massed. Our soldiery were up; and in a minute they flooded in over the parapet, hurrahing, jumping over, hurrahing—a joyful English crowd."

II. Mr. Edwards's interesting and opportune work on the *Polish Captivity* is based on letters written from Warsaw and Poland, which appeared in the *Times* newspaper. Writing, as he does, from personal observation, and showing, as he does, great shrewdness as an observer, as well as most praiseworthy breadth of sympathy, his work is especially valuable at this time, when, more than ever, the position of Poland calls for bold and honest dealing. Mr. Edwards makes his starting-point an indignant repelling of the insinuation that Poland is lifeless, useless, effete. "No," he exclaims, "there is life in Poland, and a life that grows fuller each day. Everything has been tried that could possibly extinguish it. Perhaps at last the most formidable of the partitioning powers will admit its indestructibility, and find it good policy to reckon with it. At present, however, the Poles are persecuted and beaten down everywhere. Heaven knows whether they suffer most in Russian, Austrian, or Prussian Poland. I have seen them under torture in all three, and have heard their complaints." And every page shows how warmly he has espoused their cause, and set himself to be the exponent of their grievances, and the advocate of their independence. He traces the history of the Polish constitutions (for Poland has had three), and shows how Poland fell. He describes, in lively and interesting chapters, the mode of life of the Poles, their national characteristics, the prospects of their country, their noted men—as, for example, Lelewel, the conservative democratic historian of Poland. But in thus delineating in strong relief the peculiar features of Polish character, he does not indulge any narrow or prejudiced feeling against Russia. On the contrary, he testifies that the Russians

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are not the savages that we are apt to suppose them; that many of them sympathize with the Poles; and he gives them credit for the possession of good literary tastes, and, in many cases, for a remarkable degree of culture. What culture exists in Poland, cannot we fear be ascribed to its educational institutions, of which, according to Mr. Edwards, there are none "above the rank of gymnasiums," and these have a course of study inferior to that of our grammar-schools. From Mr. Edwards's notes on this subject—which, however, are meagre enough—we make the following extract:—

EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN POLAND.

"The reform of the educational system was far from presenting the same difficulties as the peasant question; and from what I have said about the gymnasiums, it will be understood that it was of the utmost importance that the young men of Poland should be provided with some superior means of instruction.

"I believe the schools of medicine and of design were never suppressed, but it is difficult to understand how such subjects as history, literature, and political geography can be taught anywhere in Poland so ingeniously and so disingenuously as not to fortify and increase the hatred of the Polish youth for the Russians. A Polish professor once told me that he had seen a whole class throw their books at the feet of a lecturer who had ventured to praise the enterprise of the Russian Government in a matter totally unconnected with the affairs of Poland. Still, the present Emperor is not inclined to neglect, or rather to check education in the kingdom, after the manner of his predecessor. And we must not forget, that since the arrival of the Grand Duke Constantine in Warsaw, the University, broken up by the Emperor Nicholas after the insurrection of 1830, has been re-established, and the number of gymnasiums in the kingdom increased from five to thirteen.

"This educational reform, so far as it goes, is certainly creditable to Alexander II., who at least has conceded to the Poles some slight undeniable rights which would none the less have been strictly denied to them by Nicholas. It must be remembered that the 'Organic Statute' published by the late Emperor, was never acted upon, so that to compare its provisions, as is sometimes done, with those of the statute issued in good faith by the present Emperor, and actually put in force, is equivalent to an attempt to establish a proportion between zero and a positive quantity. Prior to the announcement of the recent reforms, Alexander II. had already re-established Polish as the public language of the country, and this at once made the inhabitants of the kingdom more Polish, and to a certain extent more dependent upon one another than the Poles of Gallicia and Posen, who are sadly worried by being constantly brought into contact with German officials and pedagogues, or in other words by persistent though unavailing attempts to Germanize them. From 1831 until the accession of the present Emperor, if the Polish tongue was not actually proscribed in the kingdom of Poland, its use was as much as possible discountenanced, and the Government actually attempted to make Russian the medium of communication in the public offices and schools. Thus a Polish child had not only to learn history and geography according to Russian views (which is still his fate at the present moment), but had to learn them in the Russian language—an infinitely greater difficulty, to say nothing of the humiliation, than Panslavonian theorists are disposed to admit. Let me exemplify the action of this cruel tyranny. A boy, then, was made to repeat, *secundum* Oustralioff, that the happiness of the Poles prior to the insurrection of 1830 was 'unexampled in their previous history,' with sneers at the light-headed gentlemen (including, perhaps, the pupil's father, working, chained to a barrow, in the mines of Siberia), 'who remembered with delight and pride the golden time of the reign of the magnates,' and had, moreover, to utter this insulting nonsense in the hated language of his self-styled benefactors. It would have been, it would be now, more decent and humane to imitate the Prussians, and make the history of Poland a forbidden subject in Polish schools."

Mr. Edwards does not confine himself to a description of Poland as it is. He goes to the root of the matter, and examines the entire

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question in its rise and progress. The result is a conviction that since Poland has survived conquest, partition, and oppression, it is not likely soon or easily to die. And while each district of Poland (Russian, Austrian, and Prussian), thinks its own oppression the hardest to bear, these volumes show that the two latter will be the most difficult to deal with, on account of the covert and insidious character of their yoke. The policy of Prussia is to merge the Polish character and even the Polish language in the Prussian, and so, if possible, to obliterate all traces of Poland on its Prussian side. It is, perhaps, owing to the more immediate occasion of Mr. Edwards's Letters, that the work is somewhat loose and sketchy in style, but hardly the less on this account will our readers find his gleanings from the history, the political institutions, and the social life of Poland, very pleasant and very profitable reading.

III. We are not sure that anything material has been added to our knowledge of the latter half of the eighteenth century, by the publication of the *Journals and Correspondence of Dr. Whalley.* The work was probably suggested by the number of family MSS. that have lately been dragged out of the darkness that befitted them. The editor of the work, the Rev. Hill Wickham, is rector of Horsington; Dr. Whalley's brother, Richard, was also rector of Horsington, to which office he was presented by his brother-in-law, Mr. Wickham; and in 1799, he resigned it in favour of his nephew,—the Rev. Hill Wickham? This, at all events, is probably the channel through which the Whalley MSS. came into Mr. Wickham's possession; and, finding the public in a humour for personal memorials, he has taken advantage of it to give us these two bulky volumes.

The work consists of three divisions: first, a preface, irrelevant and in bad taste, and an introductory memoir, by the editor; second, journals of foreign travel, wholly by Dr. Whalley; third, correspondence, chiefly by Dr. Whalley's friends.

Thomas Sedgewick Whalley, D.D., was a son of the Master of St. Peter's, Cambridge, where he was born in 1746. Shortly after taking orders he was presented to the rectory of Ragworthingham, in the Fens, with "the singular proviso" that he should not be resident there, as the air was fatal to all but natives. His duties were therefore performed by a curate (a native it is to be hoped), Dr. Whalley receiving the income, and building a parsonage-house for the parish, probably to relieve his conscience. Being thus appointed gentleman at large, he attached himself to society, living chiefly at Bath, sometimes in London, and sometimes travelling abroad. It was thus that Mr. Whalley (he received his D.D. from Edinburgh on the recommendation of Sir W. Scott) came into contact with Miss Burney, Hannah More and her sister, Mrs. Thrale-Piozzi, Miss Seward, Mrs. Siddons, and other literary and dramatic friends, whose letters form the greater part of the very one-sided correspondence of the second volume. Better than all Mr. Hill Wickham's descriptions of his hero, better than all that we can gather of him from his journals or his correspondents, is Miss Burney's

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pen-and-ink sketch of him as he appeared at Bath :—"A young man who has a house in the Crescent, and is one of the best supporters of Lady Miller's Vase at Bath-Easton. He is immensely tall; thin, and handsome, but affected; delicate, and sentimentally pathetic; and his conversation about his own feelings, about amiable motives, and about the wind, which at the Crescent, he said, in a tone of dying horror, 'blew in a manner really frightful,'—diverted me the whole evening." Lady Miller's Vase, our readers need hardly be reminded, was a kind of charity-box for the Muses, erected in her garden, into which her friends dropped their effusions, to be afterwards examined and read in public. Dr. Whalley's contributions to the Vase are duly embodied in these volumes, and are good specimens of fashionable and complimentary verse-turning. His greatest effort, however, in this direction, was the writing of a tragedy, "The Castle of Montval," which, to the great scandal of his brother Richard—a far nobler Christian and more estimable man than Thomas—was brought out at Drury Lane in 1799, Mrs. Siddons and the two Kembles taking parts. Besides his poems and his play, Dr. Whalley's only other literary productions were his journals of foreign travel, of which three—in Savoy, France, Switzerland, etc., are here published. They are written in the stiff, pompous style of the period, with some high polish superadded; but they indicate a ready flow of elegant language, which prepares us for being told that Dr. Whalley was "best known as a talker." Probably the best service Dr. Whalley rendered with his pen, was in his pamphlet on the Blagdon controversy, the account of which, and the relative correspondence, form the most interesting portions of these volumes. When, in 1798, Hannah More and her sister started schools and meetings for the improvement of the labourers and miners in the Mendip Hills, their efforts were opposed by the landed interest—by landlords and tenants alike—as well as by those dignified churchmen who lived in dread of Methodism. But they were strongly supported by Dr. Whalley, who took their side not more from friendship than from his strong sense of justice, and by his brother Richard, who was actuated by feelings of philanthropy and deep religious conviction. Mr. Wickham, in his introduction, gives us the following account of the "situation," which may be taken as a fair picture of

EDUCATION IN 1798.

"At first he (the curate of Blagdon) hailed the new school as a boon, but after a time took offence at the schoolmaster, and required Mrs. Hannah More to dismiss him. This she declined to do, unless sufficient charges were proved against him. On November 12th, 1800, eleven gentlemen, five of whom were neighbouring clergy, with Mr. (Colonel) Whalley as their president, met, at the Curate's request, in the village of Blagdon, to hear evidence on the matters in dispute. The Curate produced several affidavits, taken before himself by persons of the parish, affirming generally that the schoolmaster had, at different times, used improper language, some of which was disloyal, and even treasonable, and some savouring of a religious enthusiasm, injurious to his mission as a teacher. Counter depositions were also presented. The resolution of the meeting was favourable to the Curate's character, and recommended the dismissal of the master. Thus the first semi-official inquiry into the dispute between the Curate of Blag-

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don and Mrs. H. More was favourable to the former; and the depositions, with the opinion of the meeting, being forwarded to the Chancellor of the diocese, acting for the Bishop, he recommended that the school should be closed. Mrs. H. More had wished to take this step several months before, and was only restrained by the entreaties of the non-resident rector. Now the school was closed. Further reflection on the evidence brought forward at the meeting caused many of its members to alter their views, and four out of the five clergymen broke off their acquaintance with the Curate; and such representations were made to the Chancellor of his unworthy conduct in this affair, and of his own heterodox teaching, that, some months later, the Chancellor suspended the Curate from his spiritual functions at Blagdon. The interest of the dispute — first carried to a distance by private correspondence and comments in the local newspapers, then gathering consequence as the matter took a far wider range, by being discussed in the chief literary reviews of the day—obtained, when the Curate was dismissed, a degree of public attention which we can only account for by considering the real principle at issue, viz., the future education or the continued ignorance of the lower orders. We have a list, probably an incomplete one, of no less than twenty-eight pamphlets or articles on the controversy. The virulence with which most of these were written shows the strength of party spirit which existed, and certainly does not contrast favourably with a similar class of writings at the present day. Mrs. H. More did not publicly raise her voice to rebut the charges made against her, though she was assured, on high legal authority, that they were libellous. Heat in argument might palliate *odium theologicum;* but when the enemy began *ambiguas spargere voces,* in order to destroy an unblemished maiden character of so many years, he leaves himself without excuse. Though the shaft missed its object, yet its intended victim did not remain scathless, but was brought almost to death's door by the rancour which aimed it. The warm support of attached friends was not indeed wanting, and among them all, none was more zealous in her defence than Dr. Whalley. He shrank, indeed, from entering the lists openly, as he dreaded exposing himself to the Billingsgate language in which the Curate and some of his friends indulged. Few, however, could equal him in the power of sarcasm, as shown in the anonymous pamphlet, which the letters proved to have proceeded from his pen, entitled, 'Animadversions on the Curate of Blagdon's Three Publications.' The irony with which he exposes the Curate's false boast of high patronage is as amusing as it is cutting, and can be only palliated — we can scarcely say excused — by the language which the object of it had used towards others. The whole pamphlet of fifty-five closely-printed pages is, by the variety of points it takes up, the exposure of the secret motives of the Curate in the quarrel, the numerous sallies of wit, and the lucid summary of the entire matter, not unworthy of the high encomium bestowed upon it. It appears to have acted as a *coup-de-grace* to any further appeal on the part of the Curate to the compassion of the public. Sympathy from various quarters had been expressed when he was deprived of his curacy, and it was agreed that the Bishop, through his Chancellor, had done too much or too little. He refused to allege the grounds on which he dismissed the Curate: if they rested on his complaints against the schoolmaster, the punishment was too severe; if on his heterodox teaching (he was accused of denying the doctrine of the Trinity), the award was too lenient, for no steps were taken to deprive him of the benefice of Butcombe, which he held. The force of this reasoning was probably felt at Wells, and a reconciliation being effected between the Rector and the Curate, the latter was allowed to resume his functions.

"So ended the controversy, but not the animosity engendered by it, which long continued to rankle in that neighbourhood. The kiss of peace, we may fear, was too much like the embrace of the 'Jungfrau,' which occasioned death; for the Blagdon school, as we see by a letter of September 1801, was then finally closed. The light was removed from a place which, by the Curate's own confession, was peculiarly dark; and how will he answer if this removal shall have been to some the blackness of darkness for ever?"

The part taken by Dr. Whalley in this controversy seems to have been very honourable to him, though we should have had a better idea

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of that part, and the book would have better answered to its title, could we have had more of Dr. Whalley's letters, and fewer of his correspondents', especially fewer of Miss Seward's. Late in life, he is described by Mr. Wilberforce as "the true picture of a sensible, well-informed and educated, polished, old, well-beneficed nobleman's and gentleman's house-frequenting, literary, chess-playing divine—of the best sort (not adulatory)—I hope, beginning to be serious." Throughout the whole of these two volumes there is no record of this Doctor of Divinity's ever having preached a sermon; but he wrote a play, and his editor thinks there was nothing wrong in this, seeing that "the tone of his tragedy was strictly correct."

IV. We must remember, however, that Dean Milman, the next author on our list, also is a dramatist, his tragedy of "Fazio" having been acted with success at Drury Lane in 1817; but he may be held to have expiated that offence by the value of his contributions to ecclesiastical history. It is now thirty years since the first edition of his *History of the Jews* made its appearance. It hardly does justice to the volumes now before us to call them a new edition. The work of revision and extension has been so thorough as to give it the character and value of a new History. It is satisfactory to find that it is in the more recent period that the work is most enlarged; for this fact of itself (if there were not abundant proof to the same effect) shows that it was with no desire to embroil himself in present controversies that Dean Milman prepared this edition. The preparation of it, however, suggested to him—nay, his sense of duty demanded of him—the writing of a somewhat elaborate preface, embracing observations which "the circumstances of the day appear to require, or rather to enforce." He believes that the historical investigation of the Scriptures of the Old Testament is "not only inevitable, but the only safe way of attaining to the highest religious truth." And in regard to what is the duty of a Christian historian of the Jews in conducting these investigations, he still maintains the views adopted in his early days—views which, though freer and bolder than were common at that time, "have been his safeguard, during a long and not unreflective life, against the difficulties arising out of the philosophical and historical researches of our times." What these views are, may be gathered from his quoting with approval Paley, to the effect, that "to make Christianity answerable with its life for the circumstantial truth of each separate passage in the Old Testament, the genuineness of every book, the information, fidelity, and judgment of every writer in it, is to bring, I will not say great, but unnecessary difficulties into the whole system." He, therefore holds that "the moral and religious truth, and this alone, is the 'Word of God' contained in the Sacred Writings." In regard, for example, to the account of the creation in Genesis, he is "content with the great central truth, the assertion in its words, unapproachable in their sublimity, of the One Omnific Creator, of the Creator's perpetual presence and universal providence." And in the History, "so that we preserve the grand outline of the scheme of redemption,

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the Law, the evangelical prophecies, I can apprehend no danger to the Christian faith if the rest, the frame, as it were, and setting around these eternal truths, be surrendered to free and full investigation, to calm, serious, yet fearless discussion."

The work itself commences with the patriarchal age, and narrates the history of the chosen people through its various epochs, the first volume closing with the Assyrian captivity and the High Priests. The central event in the second volume is the siege and capture of Jerusalem by Titus, which leads to the relation of the Jews with Rome, the patriarchate of the West, and the Prince of the Captivity. In the third volume, the Dean discusses the relations of Judaism to Christianity and to Mohammedanism, and devotes separate chapters to a review of their treatment in mediæval and modern times in England, Spain, Italy, and France; and not the least interesting portion of the work is the concluding estimate of the present Jewish population of the globe, and the influence of the Jews on philosophy, poetry, history, and modern thought. Such is a very meagre outline of the only complete history of the Jews in our language,—a work which it is impossible to condense, and superfluous to criticise.

V. It is the design of Mr. Gardiner, in his *History of England* under the first of the Stuarts, to describe the origin of the great struggle which issued in the establishment of English freedom. The later limit of the work is fixed somewhat arbitrarily, according to a theory of the author's that the disgrace of Coke was the turning-point of James's career,—the single stroke by which he obtained all that he had been seeking previously by more devious courses. He therefore thinks that that event marks off a clear division of the subject, forms the close of a period which may be discussed by itself. The naturalness of the division, however, by no means necessarily implies the completeness of the period. If the degradation of the Chief-Justice marks the end of anything, it is only the end of the beginning,—a beginning which only acquired its full significance from the half century following the event which here marks its termination. For not even the whole of James's reign forms a complete whole, far less can the first part of it do so. And we can hardly believe that these volumes complete Mr. Gardiner's design, but expect that, should they be successful, they will be followed by a succession of volumes on the great period to which that discussed in these is merely the prelude.

The work is at the same time a valuable contribution to the history of the seventeenth century. The events it discusses are very important, embracing as they do, the Hampton Court Conference, Gunpowder Plot—based chiefly on Jardine's narrative—the Main and Bye Plots, the condemnation of Raleigh, and the career of Arabella Stuart. An interesting chapter is devoted to the contest between Presbytery and Episcopacy in Scotland; another to the pacification of Ireland. The proceedings of Parliament, as embodying the constitutional struggle, are clearly and minutely detailed, especially in the case of the Parliament of 1614. Mr. Gardiner's mode of discussing these subjects is

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calm and unprejudiced. He may not always succeed in his effort to do justice to the character of such a man as King James I., but no one can fail to admire his fair and judicial spirit. We take from his story of Arabella Stuart the following account of her escape and her death:—

"On the 15th of March [1611] she left Lambeth under the bishop's charge. Her health had given way under her sufferings, and her weakness was such, that it was only with difficulty that the party reached Highgate. There she remained for six days, and it was not until the 21st that she was removed as far as Barnet. The King declared that if he was king of England, she should sooner or later go to Durham; but he gave her permission to remain till the 11th of June at Barnet, in order to recruit her health. She remained, accordingly, for some time, under the charge of Sir James Crofts, the bishop having continued his journey to the north without her.

"Before the day appointed for her departure arrived, she had contrived a scheme, by which she hoped to escape, together with her husband, from the tyranny of James. On the 3d of June she disguised herself as a man, and left the house in which she had been for some weeks, accompanied by a gentleman named Markham. At a little distance they found horses waiting for them at a roadside inn. She was so pale and weak, that the ostler expressed doubts of the possibility of her reaching London. About six in the evening, she arrived at Blackwall, where a boat, in which were some of her attendants, was in waiting. It was not till next morning that the party reached Leigh, where they expected to find a French vessel which had been engaged to take them on board. Not perceiving the signal which the captain of this vessel had agreed to hoist, or any ship within sight, they rowed up to another vessel which was bound for Berwick, and attempted to induce the master to change his course. He refused to do so, but pointed them to the French ship of which they were in quest. As soon as they were on board, Arabella's attendants, fearful of pursuit, persuaded the captain to set sail, in spite of the remonstrances of the lady herself, who was only anxious to wait for her husband.

"Meanwhile Seymour had effected his escape without difficulty. When he arrived at Leigh, he was disappointed to find that the French vessel had already sailed. He was, however, able to persuade the master of a collier to carry him over to the Continent. The master of the vessel kept his promise, and landed him safely at Ostend. His wife was less fortunate. With her whole heart fixed upon the safety of her husband, when the vessel in which she was was within a few miles of Calais, she caused it to linger on its course, in hopes of hearing some tidings of him for whose sake she had ventured amongst so many dangers. Here, within sight of the port of safety, the fugitives were overtaken by a vessel, which had been despatched from Dover in pursuit of them. Arabella calmly resigned herself to her fate. She did not care what became of herself, if she could be sure that her husband had reached the Continent in safety.

"Arabella was committed to the Tower. Her reason gave way, and in this miserable state she died after an imprisonment of four years. It was not till after her death that Seymour obtained permission to return to England."

This extract will also show the calm and passionless style in which the work is written. Indeed in his desire to avoid everything "sensational," Mr. Gardiner seems sometimes to have exposed himself to the charge of clumsiness.

VI. Mr. Massey, adopting, like Mr. Gardiner, the division-of-labour principle in writing the History of England, has selected as his special period the *Reign of George III.* That reign is not only the longest, but if we have regard to foreign and colonial as well as to home affairs, it is the most eventful in English history. It saw the close of the Seven Years' War; it embraced the American War of Independence, and the collateral wars with France and Spain; it covered the whole

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period of the French Revolution and the Revolutionary and Peninsular Wars; it extended from shortly before the first to shortly after the second Treaty of Paris, besides embracing the Peace of Versailles, and those of Amiens and Tilsit; it is rendered glorious by the victories of St. Vincent, the Nile, Camperdown, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar,—the battles of Alexandria, Corunna, Vittoria, and Waterloo; and it counts amongst its great statesmen both the Pitts, and Fox; amongst its great sailors, Rodney, Howe, and Nelson; amongst its great soldiers, Moore and Wellington; amongst its philosophers, Burke and Paley, Reid and Stewart; its poets reach from Cowper and Burns to Wordsworth and Coleridge and to Byron and Scott; its historians from Hume and Robertson and Gibbon to the early days of Henry Hallam. Such is the brilliant period with which, in its political aspects chiefly, Mr. Massey has undertaken to deal. He has shown himself equal to the task, and has produced a work which, if it do not take the foremost rank in our historical literature, is yet of substantial interest and of sterling merit. The present volume (the fourth and last, we believe) embraces the eight years from 1793 to 1801. The third volume closed with the execution of Louis XVI., and the consequent revulsion of feeling in England from sympathy with the revolutionary party in France. The fourth volume opens with the French War, and closes with the definitive Treaty in 1801, embodied in the Peace of Amiens early in the following year. It thus embraces the French War, the War in Egypt, the conclusion of the trial of Warren Hastings, and operations in India to the fall of Seringapatam; the union of Ireland with Great Britain; and in home affairs, the press prosecutions, the Bank Restriction Act, the income-tax, and the first mooting of the Catholic question. It is in connexion with diplomatic and parliamentary questions that Mr. Massey's qualifications, as well as his tastes, as a historian, appear most favourably. If his battle-pieces are unimpassioned and matter-of-fact, they are also unaffected and free from sentimentalism; and as a historian, he is eminently fair, clear, and sensible.

VII. During the period discussed in the volume just noticed, Sir James Graham was in the nursery; perhaps at the close of it he was helping to sow the school-garden with thistles, to spite Mrs. Fletcher, the schoolmaster's wife. The political career of the member for Carlisle and the Peelite-Conservative-Liberal, rather than the personal history of the Laird of Netherby, is traced with genuine honesty, but with little power or appreciation of character, by Mr. M'Cullagh Torrens in the volumes under notice. While they deal chiefly, however, with Sir James's parliamentary career, and devote a large amount of space to reports of his speeches from the newspapers of the day, they do not entirely fail in the element of family history. They tell us that the

"Graemes of the Netherby clan"

were sprung from a discontented Scottish knight, who took up his abode on the "debateable land" at the beginning of the fifteenth century. A more reputable founder of the family was Sir Richard,

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who accompanied Prince Charles to Spain in 1623, and, faithful to his master to the last, was left for dead on the field of Edgehill. The first politician of the family, however, was his grandson, also Sir Richard, afterwards Viscount Preston of Haddington, who, having been Secretary of State to James II., was tried and condemned for treason after the Revolution, but, being pardoned by William, kept himself free of further political embroilment by devoting himself to the translating of Boethius. Sir James's father was the grandson of the Jacobite Viscount's brother; and being a stanch adherent of the Tory and country party, he was not a little irritated by his son's early liberalism. Sir James, however, always had his mother's sympathy, and he doubtless owed not a little of his shrewdness to her influence, and to that of her friends, Archdeacon Paley, Dean Milner, and Bishop Vernon (Harcourt), afterwards Archbishop of York. This early part of Sir James's career is well described by Mr. Torrens; but in regard to his public life, and the later and less successful, or at least less explicable, phases of it, he has not been so fortunate in a biographer. The literary merit of the work is by no means high; as a delineation of character it is even less satisfactory; but there are interesting passages in it which give us a better opinion of the man than his public career conveyed, such as that which describes his forbearance in not disowning the pamphlet by "a Cumberland Landowner," which was quoted in supposed self-confutation of Sir James by Mr. Thomson. It was not known till four years afterwards that the pamphlet was by Mr. Rooke.

VIII. We close our notes on the department of Current Literature, which has assumed the most important dimensions during the last quarter, by a brief reference to the Lives of a learned English Bishop, and a sagacious Scottish Professor of Divinity,—excellent types in their way of the kind of men produced by the different educational and ecclesiastical systems of the two parts of the island. To Bishop Blomfield the church was a profession; and he made the most of it, not hesitating to subordinate points of doctrine to the exigencies of ecclesiastical politics; and not scrupling to become a pluralist when his own good was, as he thought, coincident with the *majus bonum ecclesiæ*. Yet, as regards both scholarship and churchmanship, his life was an important one, and its course has been traced by his son with much discrimination and commendable simplicity.

IX. To Professor Robertson, on the other hand, the Church was less a career than a life. In his parish at Ellon he was a thorough and assiduous worker for his Master's sake. His distinguishing quality was force rather than acuteness; and though a powerful debater, he was even more remarkable for his strong practical wisdom, his faculty for organizing, and his determination in working out what he had organized: witness, in proof of this, the energy with which he carried on, during the last years of his useful life, the Endowment Scheme of his Church. In writing his life, Mr. Charteris has produced a solid

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and valuable work; free of all affectation and flippancy, happily free also of that acrimony of feeling into which a smaller mind might have been tempted, when handling the controversial points with which his subject required him to deal.

X.—REVIEWS AND NOTICES OF BOOKS.

I. Classical.

Theocritus: Recensuit et Brevi Annotatione Instruxit F. A. Paley, M.A. Cantabrigiæ, Deighton & Bell; Londini, Bell & Daldy, 1863.

Into a better edited book than this it has rarely been our good fortune to dive. Mr. Paley deserves the thanks not only of tyros but of ripe scholars, for having considered, in the preparation of his edition of Theocritus, the probable needs of all who are likely to read it. The contrast indeed between his edition and most others is so striking, that we cannot but bless the delays between his first design of editing Theocritus "multis abhinc annis," and its accomplishment in 1863. Like many other editors of the classics in this country, Mr. Paley has sometimes in his other works paid too slight regard to conciseness; but his larger experience and full-grown reputation as a scholar have, in the present instance, enabled him to consult the convenience of students and the prompting of common sense, and to turn out from the Cambridge press a volume, satisfactory without being ponderous, and calculated to enable a stranger to Theocritus to master him without recourse to other editions. By eliminating hackneyed quotations, as old as they are often pointless, and clearing away the irrelevancies with which the bucolic poet's remains have been overgrown, he has achieved the worthy aim of elucidating the text, and aptly illustrating his author, within a moderate compass. No briefer commentary than that which Mr. Paley has compressed into 150 pages, of the size of the "Grammar School Classic" series, could have done justice to so peculiarly difficult a poet as Theocritus occasionally seems; but we are bound to say that, to our minds, no larger edition, within our knowledge, is so complete and satisfactory as this. Till lately, most readers of Theocritus were obliged to have recourse to Kiessling's two octavo volumes, wading through much that was of slight value. Of Dr. Wordsworth's edition in 1844, we can speak with respect, as an advance in criticism, and as enriched with many of his lamented brother's sagacious notes. Yet it was a heavy book, too full of textual conjectures, too prone to lengthy annotations in a tongue, the chief merit of which, as a vehicle for classical notes, is its capability of compression. Mr. Paley's book presents a favourable contrast. In it lines and passages of which the meaning is self-evident, are never cumbered and confused by annotation; at the same time, we have gone through the

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whole book without finding a single real difficulty shirked. May Mr. Paley's example in this matter prove contagious! "O si sic omnes!"

In his preface, Mr. Paley mentions a number of editions to which he has had recourse; and from his notes we should say that of these Meineke, Ziegler, and Hermann met his approval most frequently. But he has worked throughout with an independent judgment. We gladly notice his remarks, brief indeed, but to the point, in contravention of the notion, which has obtained among many scholars, that the Greek poets had no taste for rural scenery, no real love of natural beauty. He quotes Theocritus, vii. 143, on this topic; and a copious list of passages of a like kind might easily be cited, had we space. Chapman's elegant but truthful English version of Theocritus might convince mere English readers of the unsoundness of the notion alluded to; and we would ask the scholar to approach the question after reading the 7th Idyll, one line of which, though not one which would be selected as most convincing, strikes us as showing great fondness in the poet for observing nature's various aspects. The poet speaks of Daphnis, in vii. 76:—

"εὖτε χιὼν ὥς τις κατετάκετο μακρὸν ὑφ' Αἶμον."

While referring to that Idyll, we venture to differ from Mr. Paley's explanation of v. 135:—

"πολλαὶ δ' ἄμμιν ὕπερθε κατὰ κρατὸς δονέοντο
αἴγειροι," κ.τ.λ.

He construes κρατὸς with ὕπερθε, because κατὰ κρατὸς would mean "de capite;" and then, half in doubt, suggests reading κρᾶτας δονέοντο, "movebantur capita," taking κρᾶτας as an accusative of limitation. With all submission we suggest, as infinitely simpler, to take ὕπερθε κατὰ to be both connected with κρατὸς, *i.e.*, "from above down our heads." The occurrence of ἀμφὶ and περὶ, similarly connected in Homer, justifies this view.

But it is rarely that one finds room to differ from the ripe judgment of Mr. Paley. There is a hard passage in the 1st Idyll, v. 51, which is as obscure as any in Theocritus; and on this it strikes us that he has thrown helpful light. It is about the fox watching *the little boy sitting by the hedgerow*, with intent to steal his wallet. She is represented as vowing—

"οὐ πρὶν ἀνήσειν
—πρὶν ἢ ἀκράτιστον ἐπὶ ξηροῖσι καθίξῃ."

There is a difficulty about ἀκράτιστον, for which editors have wearied themselves to find emendations, and another about ἐπὶ ξηροῖσι. Paley shows ἀκράτιστον to be *i.q.* "pransum," and suggests that ἐπὶ ξηροῖσι is *i.q.* "on dry bread," or "sorry food." He translates "pranso nihil se relicturam dicit (ad cænam) præter aridum panem, sc. non ὄψον:" The boy has had his dinner; Reynard will take care he has only dry bread for supper. His explanation, too, of i. 85, ζατεῦσα, is novel and very probable; we must refer the reader to it. So is his note at Idyll v. 21, where Lacon says, ἐντὶ μὲν οὐδὲν ἱερὸν, which most commentators and the scholiast take to mean, "'tis nothing

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wonderful," a proverbial expression. Mr. Paley explains οὐδὲν ἱερὸν, "non hic pascuntur," ἄφετοι, "dis consecratæ victimæ," which we take to be the sense. But it is in vain to attempt to record in the space of a brief notice, adequate proof in the way of extracts, of the value of this sound accession to our English editions of classical authors. It is, as we commenced by saying, a thoroughly well-edited book, a credit to its editor and to his University; a model, in many of its features, for others to imitate in their editorial labours; a proof that it is not the quantity but the quality which imparts worth.

The Roman Poets of the Republic. By W. Y. Sellar, M.A., Professor of Greek in the University of St. Andrews. Edinburgh: Edmonston and Douglas. 1863.

This is an important contribution to classical literature. Under the title of the Roman Poets of the Republic, Mr. Sellar reviews the origin and general character of Roman poetry, and, exhausting what is known of the personal history and traits of the poets of the Republic, he endeavours to estimate the value of their works as parts of the literature not of Rome only but of the world. The manner in which this task has been executed proves that the author is both a sound scholar and a man of general culture and great critical ability. The book will be read with interest even by readers who cannot claim to be scholars; for it contains such discriminating criticism combined with genuine sympathy with the Roman spirit, that the works of the old poets acquire in these pages the freshness of new creations, and are proved to possess an interest independent of the language in which they are written. In one way the subject of the earlier poetry of Rome may be said to be exhausted. The learning of previous generations has collected all the facts which can illustrate the personal history of the poets; while the scholars of the last and present century have eliminated, as far as possible, errors from the text, and explained many difficulties in the meaning. Such labours are most valuable, but they may be said only to prepare the way for works like the one before us. Mr. Sellar, feeling that "in poetry more than in any other field of literature, only works of high and original excellence deserve the permanent attention of the world," has devoted himself to a critical examination of the remains of the earlier Latin poets, with the view of answering the question, whether they are "of lasting worth," or "materials of trivial value which have been borne down casually among the accumulated spoils of time."

Mr. Sellar enters thoroughly into the spirit of these poets; he criticises them as if they belonged not only to his own country but to his own time.

This excellence may give a false impression of the work. It is by no means a series of mere popular essays on the Latin poets. Those familiar with classical literature, will recognise the results of great labour and learning in passages which seem easy writing to the

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uninstructed. Mr. Sellar's book is in many ways a characteristic representative of the best results of modern scholarship.

In the first two chapters the general character of Roman poetry, and the vestiges of early indigenous poetry, are reviewed. The author fully discusses Niebuhr's theory, that the legends which form so charming a part of early Roman history are the creations of poets whose works, in the words of Macaulay, formed "an earlier Latin literature, a literature truly Latin, which has wholly perished—which had indeed wholly perished long before those whom we are in the habit of regarding as the greatest Latin writers were born."

That these legends have much of the character of poetry cannot be doubted. It is impossible fully to account for their origin, but it is unnecessary to assume the existence of a lost poetical literature. Mr. Sellar agrees with those who recognise in L. Andronicus and Nævius the beginning of Latin literature. He says of the legends, that—

"In so far as they are shaped or coloured by imagination, they do not bear traces of the conscious art of a poet, but rather of an unconscious conformity to the national ideal of character. The most impressive of these legendary stories illustrate the primitive virtues of the Roman character, such as chastity, frugality, fortitude, and self-devotion; or the national characteristics of patrician pride, and a stern exercise of parental authority. There is certainly no internal evidence that any of them originated in a pure poetic impulse, or gave birth to any work of poetic art deserving a permanent existence in literature."

So little remains of the works of several of the earlier poets, and so much of that little is worthless, that only a patient and educated critic can discover indications of the spirit and genius of the author. The chapters in which Mr. Sellar treats of this early literature are evidence of his sound sense. In such studies there is always a temptation to find out new meanings, and to adopt some hypothesis which tacitly asserts the peculiar knowledge of the writer. Mr. Sellar has no preconceived theories of what these old poets were, or thought; he has no hypothesis to maintain. He therefore takes the plain meaning, and gathers from it the legitimate conclusions. He finds in them a strong patriotic spirit; a directness and vigour of expression, but in general little poetic grace. He says: "The early poetry was of essentially a Roman spirit, in harmony with the direct strength, the plain sagacity, the severity, fortitude, and dignity of Rome."

We regret that a criticism of Plautus and Terence did not fall within the scope of the book, which is confined to an examination of the imaginative literature of Rome. Only one conversant with the spirit of the old Roman writers could separate the native from the Greek sources in the comedies. Mr. Sellar has proved himself so competent for the task that we hope he will include Roman comedy in the continuation of his work.

To the two great poets, Lucretius and Catullus, many chapters are devoted. Those on the personal characteristics of Lucretius, on his philosophy, his moral teaching, and his poetical style and genius, exhaust the subject, and are models of criticism of an ancient author. Mr. Sellar has thoroughly entered into the spirit of Lucretius. He writes of him with a grave, sustained enthusiasm, rising in many places

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into real eloquence. In these chapters are to be found few or no examples of a fault occasionally apparent in other parts of the book—a tendency to repetition, as if the author, after half expressing a thought, digressed, and returning, repeated what he had said before, but never without adding some new touch.

Macaulay said of Lucretius, "the greatest didactic poem in any language was written in defence of the silliest and meanest of all systems of natural and moral philosophy." Mr. Sellar, in a different spirit, finds in the poem both "the weakness and the greatness of ancient physical philosophy." He sees in him nothing mean or silly. Such words are heard with a sort of indignation by all who admire the majestic tone, the stern and indignant, as well as tender and melancholy, spirit of Lucretius.

The admiration felt by our author for the lofty tone and moral fervour of the great contemplative poet has, we think, prevented his doing full justice to Catullus. Niebuhr said that Catullus was the greatest poet Rome ever had. Mr. Sellar does not rank him so high. It is true that the originality and perfection of his art, his genial friendliness, his sincerity, his capacity for enjoying the simple beauties of nature, the exquisite life and grace of his shorter poems, and "the sky-lark ring" of his great nuptial ode, are not forgotten. Still it is not difficult to see that the author does not so thoroughly sympathize with this type of poet as he does with Lucretius or Ennius.

The *Roman Poets of the Republic* is written with great freshness and enthusiasm. The style is polished, and often eloquent. The criticisms are just and moderate. The manner in which Mr. Sellar has infused a real interest into a review of the least known age of Latin literature, makes us look forward with pleasant expectation to the fulfilment of his promise of continuing this work to the end of the Augustan age. For the present book, the thanks of all who are interested in scholarship are due.

1. *The Student's Latin Grammar.* By Dr. William Smith and Theophilus D. Hall, M.A. London: John Murray, 1863.
2. *A Smaller Grammar of the Latin Language.* By Dr. W. Smith. London: John Murray, 1863.
3. *The Student's Greek Grammar.* By Professor George Curtius, Edited by Dr. W. Smith. London: John Murray, 1863.
4. *A Smaller Grammar of the Greek Language.* Abridged from the Larger Grammar of Professor Curtius. London: John Murray, 1863.

It is refreshing to meet with such publications as these, whose avowed object it is to present to the student the subjects they treat of in the light and form required by the progress of the science of which they claim to be the exponents. For it is one of the most singular phenomena that, while the knowledge of antiquity, the science of language in general, and in particular the scientific study of Latin and

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Greek, have made gigantic strides during the present century, the grammars still in general use, especially in the great public schools of England, are those compiled centuries ago, the only signs of progress being, that the works originally written in Latin, which is utterly unintelligible at the beginning of a boy's scholastic career, have been translated into English. The old unscientific systems however continue to be adhered to, as if the world had been standing still from the day of their first publication. We do not deny that this tenacious clinging to the practice of bygone ages has its advantages: it is probably owing to this spirit of conservatism that the ancient languages are still regarded throughout the land as the best and soundest basis of a liberal education, and that the schools are secured against the shallow attempts of a rash and reckless empiricism which would fain substitute anything or everything for the study of the ancient classics. But we are not without some misgivings that a certain degree of laziness and indolence is connected with this species of conservatism; for men are but too often averse to making any mental effort, and are too often contented to teach exactly what they themselves have learnt, and to adhere to the manner and method which were approved of in the days of their own boyhood. Such a mode of proceeding naturally creates a sort of Chinese wisdom, according to which it is a right and proper thing to do exactly as our forefathers did before us.

That this stationary character in the manner and method of teaching is observable especially in the way in which the ancient languages are still taught in many places, arises perhaps from the belief that our forefathers two or three hundred years ago knew Latin and Greek as well, if not better, than we do at present. This is indeed true enough, so far as the manipulation of these languages for writing and speaking is concerned; but the nature of language, its genesis, its organic development, based as it is on fixed laws—in short, the science of language—is altogether a child of the present century, and even the most learned of our ancestors had no conception of it whatever. Dr. Smith justly remarks:—"Every one would regard it as an absurdity for teachers of chemistry to adhere to the text-books even of illustrious chemists of a former generation; and yet classical schools cling to grammars which ignore all the researches of eminent modern philologists such as Bopp, Pott, Curtius, Max Müller, and others, who have thrown a new light upon the structure of the classical languages."

When the results of any new science are once well established, it is the duty of every one professing to teach it to make his pupils acquainted with them, and we are confident that the statement of a well-ascertained truth, which is capable of proof, is infinitely more beneficial to the mind of even the youngest pupil than an erroneous or half-true rule, which, when impressed upon the plastic mind of a boy, clings to it ever after with the most stubborn tenacity, and instead of opening up to him a clearer and truer view of things, obstructs his vision and perverts his judgment.

For these reasons we should have liked to see Dr. Smith in his Latin Grammar come forward a little more boldly. The true results of

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modern scholarship are generally given, in small print, in supplementary observations, while the rules which the pupil is expected to commit to memory, are sometimes given in the old unsatisfactory and incorrect manner. In palliation of this, the learned Doctor quotes a remark of Professor Curtius, that boys generally begin the study of Latin at a very early age, when their minds are not yet sufficiently prepared for the reception of profound abstract truths. It would, indeed, be preposterous to attempt to initiate young beginners into the philosophy of language; but we can see no reason why the truth about the simplest phenomena of a language should not be stated at once in plain and intelligible terms, which would enable the pupil to understand what he learns, instead of making him commit to memory things which must be to him unintelligible symbols. Why, for example, does Dr. Smith not tell his readers at once that the Latin declensions and conjugations are divided into two classes each, according as the stems of nouns and verbs end either in vowels or consonants? The naming of the declensions and conjugations according to the vowels, instead of calling them first, second, and third, etc., would at once give a valuable piece of information, and greatly assist the learner in understanding the inflections. In the syntax, also, which is the work of Mr. Hall, some things are stated in large type in the old traditional way, while a corrective is given in observations or appendices.

Dr. Smith's Latin Grammar contains some very valuable chapters on subjects not generally included in grammars, such as what is commonly called *syntaxis ornata*, on the styles of the leading Latin authors, and a very excellent summary of Corssen's invaluable work on the *Aussprache Vokalismus und Betonung der Lateinischen Sprache*. Both the larger and the smaller Latin grammar are a great advance upon those still used in many of the public schools of England; and if the latter continue to be used, it cannot now be said that it is for want of better books.

The Greek grammar of Professor Curtius is of a somewhat different character. Greek not being generally commenced until boys have acquired some knowledge of Latin, and are tolerably familiar with the laws of their mother-tongue, the author has boldly adopted the scientific method, and this has been strictly preserved in the translation of the larger work; in the smaller one the editor has followed this method more sparingly, for which we can see no good reason. All that refers to the accidence and etymology is of the highest excellence, and there is no Greek grammar in existence which in so small a compass contains so much valuable and suggestive information. The syntax is comparatively brief, and does not throw much new light upon the subject; but it must be borne in mind that the syntactical laws of the ancient languages have not yet received that searching investigation which has been bestowed upon their inflections and etymology. The English translation is a most accurate rendering of the fifth German edition, and we hope that in this country it may ere long be adopted as the standard Greek grammar, a position which it has already acquired in most of the schools of continental Europe.

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1. *Zumpt's Grammar of the Latin Language.* Translated by Dr. Schmitz. Sixth Edition. Longman & Co.
2. *Grammar of the Latin Language.* By Dr. Schmitz. New Edition. W. & R. Chambers.

Dr. Schmitz has enjoyed the rare good fortune of commencing his classical studies under auspices of the most favourable kind;—under the influence of the school of Hermann on the one hand, and of Niebuhr on the other. Such a happy conjuncture of circumstances has not fallen to the lot of the younger generation, whose scholarship, in the majority of cases, has suffered by a too rapid transition from the critical to the æsthetic aspects of classical antiquity. The resutl has been the gain of a superficial acquaintance with the meaning of the ancient authors at the expense of a mastery of their language,—the neglect of their diction, *quâ* diction, in favour of their mere literary or historical value. It is for this reason that we have done so little for the last forty years to the text of the Greek and Latin writers, and that Oxford has had to call in the services of foreign scholars for the editing of authors on whom she bestows her chief attention. No one can regard the amount of her obligations to the Dindorfs, for example, as altogether creditable to the competency of her alumni; and any influence which tends to bring back the old accuracy of the school of Porson and Elmsley, and establish the modern æsthetic and historical culture on the firm foundation of rigid verbal and syntactical scholarship, must be hailed with all the satisfaction with which we welcome a salutary reform.

It is the happy combination of this grammatical proficiency with æsthetic and historical culture which renders Dr. Schmitz's labours, both as an author and as a teacher, so valuably opportune. He had come under the full influence of the verbal school before he entered the field of historical investigation; and his writings and prelections are fraught with the best results of an experience which takes in the two extremities of the classical field. His translation of Zumpt's Latin Grammar has long assumed its rank as a standard book of reference in our Colleges and higher schools, and its latest edition, now before us, embodies the most approved accessions to the subject, with a completeness that attests the vigilance and freshness of the translator's scholarship. Dr. Schmitz's own Latin Grammar is in every respect worthy of the translator of Zumpt, and comprises an amount of information and philosophical principle which is out of all proportion to its unpretending size. We are inclined to put a higher value upon this than upon any other of its author's productions, as affording the clearest proof of his thorough scholarship and of his logical power. To the study of Latin it forms the best introduction with which we are acquainted, and is equally well adapted to prepare the student for those extended inquiries which constitute the rapidly enlarging subject of comparative philology. Its only defect is the want of a good index.

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The Plain of Troy described, and the Identity of the Ilium of Homer with the New Ilium of Strabo proved by comparing the Poet's Narrative with the Present Topography. By CHARLES MACLAREN, F.R.S.E., Member of the Geological Societies of France, London, and Edinburgh. Edinburgh: A. and C. Black, 1863.

IN 1822, Mr. Maclaren published an exceedingly able dissertation on the Topography of the Plain of Troy. Since that time he has visited the Troad; he has carefully examined the various works which have subsequently appeared on the localities mentioned by Homer; and he has gathered together all the passages in ancient writers which relate to the subject. After thus fitting himself for his task, he has re-written his early dissertation, and published it with the title at the head of this notice. Such a book is likely to be good. It is unquestionably the best monograph in existence on the Plain of Troy. Mr. Maclaren is successful also, we think, in defending the positions which he took up in his early book; and we have no doubt that the work will be accepted by scholars as settling the localities of Homer, as far as they can now be settled.

Mr. Maclaren's early work was directed against the prevalent opinions in regard to the localities in the Plain of Troy. The first who gave these opinions their direction was Lechevalier. His whole scheme was based on a passage in the twenty-second book of the Iliad, which is as follows:—

> κρουνὼ δ' ἵκανον καλλιρρόω ἔνθα τε πηγαί
> δοιαὶ ἀναΐσσουσι Σκαμάνδρου δινήεντος.—147, 148.

He identified certain springs near Bunarbashi with those mentioned in the lines of Homer. He then set down the insignificant Bunarbashi river as the Scamander, and made the much larger Mendere the Simois. And then, to harmonize with this, he fixed the site of Ilium near the springs.

Mr. Maclaren has proved conclusively that the springs of Bunarbashi do not correspond to the springs of Homer; that the epithets applied to the Scamander are inappropriate to the Bunarbashi river; and he has shown that it is extremely probable that the Bunarbashi river runs through an artificial bed, and is a canal, therefore, rather than a river. He proves, at the same time, that the Mendere is the Scamander of Homer, as well as of Strabo.

Difficulties meet him in regard to the Simois; for changes have taken place in the configuration of the country. But still his opinion, that it is the Dombrek, appears to us by far the most reasonable; and Mr. Maclaren deserves especial praise for tracing the history of the river, and bringing testimony to bear on the change that took place in its course.

Mr. Maclaren lays chief stress, as his title indicates, on his proof that the New Ilium of Strabo is the Ilium of Troy. Here he is arrayed against Strabo and his authority, Demetrius; against a scholarly lady of the name of Histiæa; and also against almost all modern

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writers since the time of Lechevalier, except his own converts. We think his arguments conclusive as to the Homeric Ilium being within three or four miles of the sea-coast at the utmost, and we agree with him in thinking that ancient tradition was right in regarding the Ilium of historical times as the Ilium of Homer. The reasoning of Demetrius to the contrary is entirely unsatisfactory.

The great defect of Mr. Maclaren's book consists in his omission to discuss the reliability of Homer as a witness to geographical facts. He should have made some attempt to estimate how far his statements in regard to localities are to be taken as corresponding to reality, or as intentionally or unintentionally coloured by fancy. He again and again asserts that he regards the poem of Homer as narrating a real war and describing real events. But he should have gone further than this, and discussed in what points Homer would be likely to state the exact truth, and in what points he would be necessarily inaccurate or fanciful; for those who are opposed to Mr. Maclaren's theories will be inclined to reply, as Leake and others did before, that many of the passages adduced are exaggerations or inaccuracies of the poet.

It is a pity that Mr. Maclaren has allowed several careless blunders in the printing of Greek quotations to creep into his book. This, however, does not affect the strength of his position; for, indeed, the treatise itself is one of the ablest contributions to a knowledge of ancient geography, and the writer of it deserves the heartiest thanks of all scholars.

II. Mathematical.

Exercises in Euclid and in Modern Geometry. By J. M'Dowell, B.A., F.R.A.S., Pembroke College, Cambridge, and Trinity College, Dublin. Cambridge: Deighton, Bell, and Co. 1863.

This is a well-timed and welcome book. For the last thirty years the old geometrical methods have languished under the vigorous growth of the newer analysis. Fifteen years ago, pure geometry was represented at Cambridge by five Books of Euclid. The fifth book, the most beautiful and most perfect of all the mathematical writings of the ancients, was excluded. There did exist, it is true, a treatise on conic sections, having a somewhat geometrical aspect, but examination proved that it was simply an analytical treatise disguised. It had none of the beautiful geometry of Wallace's Conic Sections. Accordingly, the algebraical treatises of Hamilton and Hymers were, with few exceptions, the sole text-books. This was all very well at the time. Mathematical science had slept long in this country, and on its revival under such men as Herschel, Babbage, Horner, and others, it is not a matter of astonishment that the new analysis which they cultivated should, for a time, have thrust its weaker predecessor aside. The authorities in the Universities encouraged an almost exclusive study of analysis. It was the language of foreign writers, and

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therefore the language of progress. They were no doubt influenced by considerations similar to those which dictated the stinging rebuke of Sir John Herschel to our British students. In a note to his admirable article "Sound," published in 1830, he says: "Here whole branches of continental discovery are unstudied, and indeed almost unknown even by name. It is in vain to conceal the melancholy truth. We are fast dropping behind. In mathematics we have long since drawn the rein, and given over a hopeless race." This stigma, whatever truth it may have had at the time, has now been fully wiped out. Under its influence, however, it was the duty of those in authority to encourage studies rather as a means of progress than as the foundation of a broad and liberal education. And there can be no question that analysis is far more powerful than pure geometry as a means of progress. We read the Principia, and are filled with astonishment and admiration; but who closes the book without feeling that Newton has ascended heights beyond which no farther advance appears possible? With analysis it is very different. Here there is no finality, and Laplace and Lagrange of the old French school have been the starting-points for Airy and Adams of the modern English one. But progress in science is only the secondary object of a university. And so comes the question, Is analysis fitted to supersede geometry as a means of training the mind? Is analysis in itself a good exhibition of elementary applied logic? There can be no doubt about the answer. It is certain not only that analysis is very inferior to geometry as a means of education, but that in some cases, and when it is pushed to excess, it may be, as Sir W. Hamilton so ably argues, "positively disadvantageous to education." The primary object of the introduction of an algebraic symbol is to relieve the mind of the toil and care requisite for building up the things known into the things sought. It is the boast of analysis as a means of research, that the traveller is safe on every road. But with geometry it is far different. Here there is (to reverse the saying of Euclid) "a royal road," and no other. The traveller must keep to the king's highway, or he will be lost. Hence it is requisite that he keep a sharp look-out ahead. He cannot stumble along dreamily as in analysis. He must have the end clearly in view at every step. Thus geometry is eminently conducive to the early development of the logical faculties. If this be admitted, it is reasonable to expect that the University of Cambridge, seeing that her analysts have attained an eminence almost unlooked for, in such men as Cayley and Sylvester, should return to the encouragement of pure geometry as a handle to education. This she appears to be doing. The editions of Euclid by Mr. Potts have met with encouragement; and a geometrical treatise on conic sections, published five years ago by Macmillan, appears to have had some success. There was, however, no advance; it was rather a revival and a partial restoration than a new growth. The work before us is an attempt to carry on the old methods, and to open up new tracks in this latterly neglected field.

The author states in his preface, that the first half of the volume is

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confined to the ancient pure geometry, and the remainder to the modern pure geometry. There is no indication of such a division in the work itself, but the reader will have no difficulty in finding that the latter branch commences at page 154. The former portion of the work up to this page may be regarded as a series of ordinary exercises on Euclid. In looking over this portion of the work, we are very favourably impressed with the character of the examples which the author has selected. As if to contrast pure geometry with analysis, examples are prominent which have usually been regarded as the best fitted for illustrating analytical methods. Such, for instance, as—"The centre of the circumscribed circle [of a triangle], the intersection of the bisectors of the sides [drawn from the opposite angles], and the intersection of the perpendiculars to the sides [drawn from the opposite angles], lie in the same straight line." This is good. But it will probably occur to some of our readers, that if an exercise of such difficulty stands as No. 9, that which shall stand at nine times nine will be something fearful. We assure the alarmed student that such is not the case. Nine times nine is one of a very easy series of exercises, in which the author appears to labour under the conviction that he is improving the sixth Book of Euclid. A mistake certainly. But that and the other propositions in the book are for the most part simple enough. Unfortunately, there is no proper arrangement amongst the propositions. Creswell, whose *Supplement to Euclid* long fulfilled the mission which the present volume is intended to carry forward, arranged his exercises under the different propositions of Euclid. This was a great assistance to the student, and Creswell's book will never lose its value. Bland, again, sought to make the easier deductions stand before the harder ones. Mr. M'Dowell despises such artifices. And it is to be feared that in so doing, he may deter many from the use of his very valuable book. His twenty-first proposition, which illustrates the connexion between *inside* and *outside*, *sum* and *difference*,—a connexion which is not sufficiently insisted on in Euclid,—witness the demonstration of the 13th of the second Book, as compared with that of the 12th; this proposition occupies six pages of Mr. M'Dowell's book; whilst Proposition 146, nearly the last of the Euclid series, is one of those simple propositions fitted to illustrate the same position, which are capable of demonstration in a few words. Such anomalies abound in the book. But as the author hardly intended it for mere beginners, we may pass them by, and give the collection our warm commendation.

The remaining portion of the work is devoted to the illustration of the principles of harmonic and anharmonic pencils and ranges, radical axes, axes of similitude, poles and polars, and reciprocal polars. We infer from the title-page, and from an acknowledgment of Mr. Townsend at page 202, that the author is from the sister isle. And we take this opportunity of acknowledging our obligations to the men of Trinity College, Dublin, for the many benefits they have conferred on science in this special department. Not the least of these was the publication about fifteen years ago of Salmon's Conic Sections,—a work

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which popularized the beautiful discoveries of Poncelet and others, and, by its great merit, has engaged students to advance in their studies to an immeasurable distance in advance of their former limit. And we believe Mr. M'Dowell, by treating the same subjects geometrically, will be found to have done good service to our students. Many who were unable to master the beautiful theorems of Pascal and Brianchon, or to translate the one into the other by the analytical process, will here find the thing done, for the circle at least, by pure elementary geometry. To those students, at any rate, who have a preference for geometric methods, the work will be an acquisition. And when any one shall have mastered it, we engage he will go farther; and we commend to him the pages of the *Mathematician*, supplement to vol. iii., where he will find some of these problems discussed in a similar way, and in a more general form, by an Edinburgh amateur.

An Elementary Treatise on Mensuration. By B. T. Moore, M.A., Fellow of Pembroke College, Cambridge. Deighton, Bell, and Co. 1863.

The teacher or the student who shall purchase this book with the expectation, based on the title, of getting an improved edition of Bonnycastle or Hutton or Elliot, will find himself sadly mistaken. The title of the work appears to imply that it is devoted to practical measuring, and that it is conversant with arithmetic and geometry. Custom, too, has ruled that treatises bearing this title shall be devoted rather to the exemplification of formulæ than to their demonstration. Hence it has happened that all the books bear a strong family likeness to one another. Accordingly, we are not sorry to find custom set aside in this instance. We should indeed be disposed to rejoice, were it not that the work before us does violence to our feelings by its utter neglect of the old familiar arithmetic. As we turn over the leaves, and think of the idea wont to be attached to the word "Mensuration," we picture to ourselves the horror of some unhappy purchaser, who finds himself much in the predicament of the hill-farmer when he bought Mr. Ruskin's Essay on Sheepfolds. But what are we talking about? Are there not plenty of examples appended to the book? Certainly; but how many of them are worked out? and where are the answers to the larger proportion of those that are not worked out? Is it the object of an elementary treatise to tell the student only what he has to do, and to leave him to do it as he best can? But is it true that the problems are not worked out? Let us see. To illustrate chapter viii., which treats of the areas and volumes of solids bounded by curve surfaces, there are eighty-three examples. Of these, six are worked out. But what are these six? Alas for the beginner! they are not problems suited to him. The third of them, for instance, involves the solution of a cubic equation. Such old problems as the determination of the volume of the earth are below the author. He writes for a higher class of readers than those who could hesitate

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about the earth's volume. And yet such is the inaptitude of the human mind for high numbers, that this very problem has created a considerable amount of confusion in its day. In Bonnycastle's Mensuration, published in 1782, the answer to this problem was given in miles extending to eleven places of figures. Either in working the problem or in printing, a figure had dropped out. The earth's volume extends to twelve places of figures. This was what anybody might have found out any day. So Mr. Moore would say. But somehow, what is everybody's duty is never done. The error accordingly crept into other books; travelling from mensuration to astronomy, and from astronomy back to the earth again, where we last saw it in the sheets of a medical treatise printed in Edinburgh about ten years ago, and had it set right. But enough of what the author does *not* do. What he professes to do will be best explained by a few words from his preface:—

"The following treatise differs essentially from many existing works on Mensuration, inasmuch as all the rules and formulæ employed in it are strictly demonstrated; and in no case is any one of them introduced to the notice of the student in the repulsive form of an empirical rule. At the same time, the methods employed are such, that the student who takes up this treatise will not require any higher knowledge than a fair acquaintance with Euclid, algebra, and plane trigonometry, together with a knowledge of the *forms* of the conic sections, and of their more simple properties."

And we are of opinion that the author has done what he proposes to do, well. For instance, in chapter vi., which gives and illustrates the first section of the Principia, he follows Newton very carefully, and does not distort or misrepresent him. His applications of Newton's method are also unobjectionable; as, for instance, "to find the area of a cycloid" (page 130). What we fear is that the attempt to push the method upwards, as in finding the area of the involute of the circle, may be felt by some to be unnecessary, and by others to be repulsive. Practical men, at any rate, had better aim at acquiring the differential calculus with its simple processes, which are applicable to every department of science, than set themselves down to master these beautiful but inexpansive extensions of a geometry which is, in a double sense, "the method of limits." We do not make this remark in disparagement of the work; on the contrary, we cordially recommend it to all those who wish to see the subject exhibited in its advanced form, and treated according to a consistent plan.

1. *Problems and Examples, adapted to the Elementary Course of Mathematics.* By Henry Goodwin, D.D., Dean of Ely. Third Edition. Revised by T. G. Vyvyan, M.A., Fellow of Gonville and Caius College.
2. *Solutions of Do.* By the Rev. W. W. Hutt, M.A. Third Edition. Revised and enlarged by T. G. Vyvyan. Deighton, Bell, and Co. 1863.

The fact that a collection of examples on the different branches of mathematics has reached a third edition, proves the necessity which is

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felt by students for extensive illustration of their subjects of study beyond the text-book and the lecture-room. And the fact that the sale of the solutions has kept pace with that of the problems themselves, while it is strongly confirmatory of the same view, appears further to argue for the excellence of the solutions themselves. We have great pleasure in adding that, in our opinion, they are entitled to claim this inference. The examples extend over algebra, trigonometry, conic sections, three sections of the Principia, and the elements of mechanics, hydrostatics, and optics. The examples are very simple, making no profession of embracing the modern extensions of the sciences; but they are not on that account the less appropriate for beginners. If we were captiously inclined, we might quarrel with the reading of some of them. It is, however, very difficult to set down in few words what is passing through one's mind, with such accuracy of expression, that the reader shall have no excuse for going off to another matter. Take the following example (Ex. 24, p. 7.) "Is the following reasoning conclusive?—

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \ldots$$

Let $x = 1$; $\therefore \frac{1}{2} = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \ldots$ *ad infinitum.*

Here a student is asked if *reasoning* is conclusive? He very naturally supposes this question to have reference to the conclusion derived from an assumption or datum, not to the assumption or datum itself, and accordingly may answer "Yes," as he is bound in honesty to do. But on turning up the second work containing the "solutions," he is told to answer "No," and that not because the reasoning is inaccurate, but because the *given* equation is inaccurate. We believe that injustice is sometimes done in examinations, from a looseness of expression on the part of the examiner. On the whole, however, we have pretty fair confidence in the results of examinations. The two books before us form an excellent medium for self-examination. The second should be consulted only as a last resource, except perhaps on such subjects as "The three sections of Newton," where the solutions are well fitted to improve the taste of the student.

Elementary Trigonometry with a Collection of Examples. By T. P. Hudson, M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge. Deighton, Bell, and Co. 1863.

We are glad to see the title of this book. Elementary Trigonometry is certainly a much more attractive title than the Elements of Trigonometry, on which we have had so many treatises of late that we feel quite thankful for the characteristic distinction implied in the word Elementary. Besides, the adjective may have a meaning which, judging from the fact that the writers of the elements insert in them every proposition they can demonstrate, and every example they can lay their hands on, the noun has not. On searching for the meaning

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in the book itself, we have, however, been somewhat puzzled. We have come to the conclusion most assuredly, that the word has no connexion with such words as "easy" or "adapted" to beginners in mathematics. Indeed, we suspect beginners will pronounce the book the very reverse of easy. Nor does the word imply that the subject is treated geometrically. On the contrary, the work is essentially algebraic in its character. Not, indeed, that it goes the length of old Woodhouse, or the curious syllabus of Peacock, where the science was reduced as nearly as possible to a science of pure symbols. But Mr. Hudson's treatise is far too algebraic for that numerous class of students who desire to read a little trigonometry early in their course, with a view to the study of mechanics. Look at the top of p. 17, where the *elementary* formulæ are exhibited, and you will find the connexion between the tangent and the sine exhibited with a double sign in the denominator. Or look at that pithy little chapter vii., which consists of two pages of symbols so closely packed, that they appear in danger of suffocating each other; a consummation which no doubt many students will devoutly wish. What, then, does the word "elementary" mean? We appear to get at the answer by turning up Colenso's Trigonometry. This work was published in two parts. The first part contained no applications of impossible quantities; no instances, that is, of the appearance of algebra in its proper and exclusive character; and we find the same limitation in the book before us. We do not regard it as a merit in an algebraic treatise. In what the merit of this treatise does consist, it is hard to say. Perhaps it is in the collection of examples, which nearly occupies half the volume. The demonstrations seem to differ very little from those given by Snowball, Hymers, Colenso, or Todhunter. We do not say this in disparagement. Original writers, such as De Morgan, may venture to take a somewhat eccentric course, and succeed; for we believe De Morgan's Trigonometry was successful. But less gifted or less original writers (we allude to such works as Wilson's Trigonometry, which contains much valuable matter not found in the others), deviate from the beaten track at their peril. And so all the recent treatises have a strong family likeness. In nothing is this likeness stronger than in their neglect of their native school. To take one example. In the first section of the Principia (lemma 7), it is proved most convincingly that the limiting ratio of the chord, arc, and tangent is a ratio of equality. Most of the mathematicians of Newton's day who mastered the Principia, must have considered this a question settled for ever. They believed, probably, that the conclusion would never be established on a better basis, if ever again discussed. They certainly never imagined that trigonometer after trigonometer in Newton's own university, would attack the problem *de novo*, without even alluding to the Principia. Such is, however, the case. Colenso rests his demonstration on a proposition from Legendre's Geometry, which *assumes* the thing to be proved in a very clever and taking form. Mr. Hudson, on the other hand, assumes Archimedes' Theorem (p. 22, line 5), that the arc is greater

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than the sine and less than the tangent, after which the theorem required is a simple matter. As this theorem is in reality the *pons asinorum* from the geometry of Euclid to that of Archimedes or Newton,—the great gulf that links between the geometry of straight lines and the geometry of curves,—many of our readers may prefer a few more words about it to any remarks we might add on the treatise before us. About the close of the last century, M. Lagrange, one of the most elegant and original mathematicians of his age, endeavoured to clear the higher analysis from any such ideas as limits, vanishing ratios, infinitesimals, and the like, and to place the fluxional or differential analysis on the same footing as elementary algebra. In every point but one his success was triumphant. The one difficulty lay in establishing a relation between the arc, chord, and tangent. Lagrange appears to have thought he had successfully evaded or cleared this point by a demonstration which he exhibited in his quarto work published in 1797. He subsequently saw reason to abandon this demonstration, and indeed to give up all hope of effecting a demonstration at all, preferring to rely on the arguments of the old geometers. Accordingly, in 1806, in his *Calcul des fonctions*, p. 42, he addresses himself in the following way to evade the difficulty. We quote his words: "*Il est démontré rigourousement par les théorèmes d'Archimède, que le sinus est toujours moindre que l'arc, et que la tangente est plus grande que l'arc du moins dans le premier quart de cercle.*" Could Lagrange have imagined it possible that Archimedes, or indeed any one, had effected a rigid demonstration of these theorems without using limits? He was too wise a man to look into the writings of Archimedes to ascertain the fact. The *rigorous demonstration* was necessary to the completion of his own scheme, and it behoved him to cleave to the belief in its existence. Any one, however, who has no fears for the consequences may satisfy himself that no such demonstration exists. The statement of Archimedes is plain enough. He says, without a word of demonstration, "The arc *is* greater than the chord and less than the tangent." An unhappy man had been meddling with these theorems a century or two before Lagrange. Barrow says in reference to them, *Vide Rivaltum et stupe.* With such a host of trigonometers to *see*, we can allow the bones of Rivaltus to rest in peace.

Elementary Statics. By HARVEY GOODWIN, D.D., Dean of Ely.
Elementary Dynamics. By the same Author. Deighton, Bell, & Co.

THE author of these treatises is already too well known as a writer on the same subject, to require introduction on our part. Indeed the treatises are simply modifications of previous treatises on mechanics by the same author. The volume which treats of statics has the merit of great simplicity combined with tolerable completeness. The author divides the subject into *experimental* and *demonstrative* mechanics. This mode of division will probably be of considerable assistance

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to a beginner. It must not, however, be supposed that it is necessary for the student practically to make any experiments in studying the subject. The experiments are as good on paper as in a more solid form. The science of statics, in truth, presents none of the difficulties which attach to that of dynamics. Its experimental truths at once commend themselves to the judgment, and reduce it without any effort of the mind to the domain of pure geometry. Accordingly, the reader will find almost as much appearance of mathematical demonstration in chap. iv., which treats of the centre of gravity under the denomination of experimental mechanics, as in one of the subsequent chapters on demonstrative mechanics. And this fact suggests the remark that mechanics *cannot* be studied to any good purpose without some knowledge of geometry and the rudiments of trigonometry. In noticing Mr. Hudson's book, we felt disposed to complain of the extremely algebraic form of his treatise. For the purposes of a very large number of students such a treatment is unnecessary. It adjourns the study of this simple subject trigonometry, and thereby the proper study of mechanics, to a period beyond what is desirable. We recommend intending students of mechanics to master the rudiments of trigonometry before they begin the study of its applications. It will contribute much to the ease, rapidity, and steadiness of their progress.

The author's treatment of both statics and dynamics is very clear and simple. There is no aiming at unnecessary generality, no parading of cumbersome formulæ, nor, what is more important still, is there the too common forgetfulness on the part of the author of trifling difficulties which are likely to trouble a beginner, although to the finished student they are all but imperceptible. We remember the author of a treatise on mechanics replying to one who objected to the extreme brevity and incompleteness of his explanations, that he had written down everything simply as it occurred to himself. Simply as it occurred to *himself* after the difficulties had disappeared! Hence the unsatisfactory explanations. Mr. Goodwin appears to have taken the proper course of placing himself in the position of beginners, and asking what would occur to *them*.

We will conclude our consideration of these treatises by commending to the notice of all students of scientific works the following remarks addressed by Mr. Goodwin to his reader:—"I say *reader*, but I cannot refrain from taking this opportunity of reminding the student that he will find *writing* a much more effective mode of studying than *reading*. Let him write out from the book several times any difficult proposition, and he will find that he has gained more knowledge of the proposition than he could have gained in a much longer time spent in merely reading it. The method of writing, which appears slow and laborious, is in reality to all, except a very few, an important economy of time and trouble."

The words "from the book," in this quotation, should be taken with considerable limitation.

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Arithmetic for the Use of Schools and Colleges. By Alfred Wrigley, M.A. Deighton, Bell, & Co. 1863.

Mr. Wrigley's previous publication, "A Selection of Examples in Pure and Mixed Mathematics" has been so successful, and with such good reason, that we are bound to treat this new work with respect. Its form is, however, not exactly what we should imagine to be best adapted to the use of schools. The division adopted is into pure and mixed arithmetic. Now it must be confessed that the former head is somewhat barren of interesting results, and our persuasion is that if a school teacher should persist in adhering to that branch of the subject, he would find his work very heavy and dry. Such a division as that adopted by Mr. Wrigley may do very well for *colleges*, where a revisal only of previous acquirements in this subject can be looked for. Arithmetic is, in fact, one of those branches of study that cannot be taught by rule. It must be built up in a boy's mind like a rough cairn—stone being placed upon stone, with a view to increase solidity rather than to perfect shape. After it has attained goodly dimensions, a facing of greater polish and regularity is certainly desirable. Now such a finish the study of Mr. Wrigley's treatise may effect. But even for this limited purpose we doubt if the principle of philosophical division has not been carried too far. Compound addition, the very first thing to make the notational system intelligible, is placed exactly in the middle of the book. And the rule of three, the key-stone of applied arithmetic, is to be sought for very near the last page; or rather very near the collection of miscellaneous examples, which forms an excellent supplement to the treatise. On the other hand, greatest common measures and least common multiples are on the earlier pages. And even the extraction of the cube root—a thing abhorrent to the nature of a boy—is required to be mastered, with all the terrific accompaniments of fractions and decimals, before the student is informed of the pleasant fact that twelve pence make a shilling. We doubt the success of such a volume.

Elementary Hydrostatics. By W. H. Besant, M.A. Deighton, Bell, & Co. 1863.

The want of a good elementary treatise on hydrostatics has long been felt. No doubt the treatise of Phear is good in many particulars. But the present style of reading necessitates the accompaniment of good demonstrations by simple verbal explanations, and by an ample collection of easy examples. We believe Mr. Besant's treatise will be found to satisfy these requirements.

III. Miscellaneous.

A Hebrew Grammar, with Exercises. By M. M. Kalisch, Ph.D., M.A. In Two Parts. London: Longmans. Part I. 1862; Part II. 1863.

It is now half a century since the Hebrew tongue began to be made the subject of philosophical study. To Dr. Gesenius belongs

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the great merit of having freed it from the subtleties and fancies with which the mystic treatment it received from the generality of the early Jewish grammarians had disfigured it, and of investigating its structure in accordance with the recognised laws of grammar and of comparative philology. Since the appearance of his Lexicon in 1810-12 and his Grammar in 1813, Hebrew grammar has advanced with rapid strides; so much so, that, through the labours of Ewald, Nordheimer, Fürst, Hupfeld, and others, its present position will bear no unfavourable comparison with that of the classical tongues. Gesenius' Grammar has been translated into English several times, and has been the text-book commonly used in this country and America for at least twenty-five years; the third edition of Ewald's Grammar (1829) was translated in 1836: but neither the *Lehrgebäude* of the one, nor the *Ausführliches Lehrbuch* of the other, has as yet been made available to the merely English student, though we trust that the latter, the maturest grammatical work of perhaps the most eminent living Hebrew scholar, will, ere long, find a competent translator. Of the other writers just named, Nordheimer wrote his Grammar in English (New York, 1838-41), and a very full and satisfactory work it is; but unfortunately it has been for some years out of print. It is unnecessary to notice minor works which have been merely compiled from these. Lee's Hebrew Grammar should not be omitted in reckoning up the means of study which the English student has had in his power. With all the progress, therefore, that has been made in Germany, there is ample room for a new Hebrew Grammar of authority in the English language; and we are glad to welcome one from a scholar of the eminence of Dr. Kalisch, so favourably known for his commentary on Genesis and Exodus (to be continued, we are glad to perceive); a work which resembles in plan, though with greater fulness, that which Keil and Delitzsch are now issuing at Leipsic, and which redeems English Biblical literature from the charge of being absolutely a blank in the department of Old Testament Philology.

The work consists of two parts. The first confines itself to giving a general view of the outlines of the language, both in its accidence and in its syntax, such as shall enable the learner to proceed to reading and analysis with some confidence, and at the same time lay a firm and broad basis for further study. The second goes over the same ground, section for section, filling up the outlines with details, exceptions, and the limitations of rules; and is designed to be read leisurely as a supplement in the course of revising Part First. We are disposed to think this the most judicious plan that could have been followed. The student of Hebrew being generally advanced in years, and prepared for his subject by considerable previous grammatical training, the use of short skeleton grammars is most unsatisfactory; whilst, on the other hand, some limit must be placed on the mass of facts to be adduced in illustration during his early studies. Dr. Kalisch has included in Part I. sufficient to give him a sound elementary knowledge of the language, keeping within reasonable com-

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pass by avoiding speculative matter—and studying conciseness of statement, rather than by absence of illustration. The supplementary Part II. contains what will give him a complete acquaintance with all the grammatical forms and constructions which appear in the Old Testament. The balance between the two parts has been preserved with great judgment.

The execution of the work is, as might be expected, accurate and scholar-like. If the author arranges and disposes of his materials in an unpretending way, he handles them with a grasp showing intimate familiarity with them. The author has not sought to lay out his plan in the most imposing manner, but to make it serviceable in the study of the language, in doing which the ability of the teacher appears no less than that of the scholar. In Part I., besides the discretion shown in the omissions, these two features deserve notice: The one is that there will be found to be less of that anticipation in statement, which is so perplexing to the student, in this grammar than in any other with which we are acquainted; an important feature in an elementary work, and one which ought undoubtedly to take precedence of symmetry and exhaustiveness. The other point is the number of the exercises which accompany the exposition, a comparatively new feature in the treatment of Hebrew grammar. The collection of these at first hand must have been a work of considerable labour to the author, and the analysis of them will no doubt demand some patience and labour in the reader; but of the benefit to be reaped from their careful use there can hardly be two opinions. Valuable in any grammar, they have this special value in Hebrew grammar—that, being selected from the Old Testament, each one makes a distinct contribution to a knowledge of the book for which the whole study is undertaken. At the end of the volume, therefore, the student is master of a considerable part of the phraseology of the Old Testament, both as to its meaning and its grammatical character.

An idea of the nature of Part II. may be formed by one or two illustrations. In dealing with the noun, *e.g.*, whilst Part I. lays down the general rules for inflexion, Part II. brings in under each head a complete list of irregularities and anomalous nouns, with the necessary explanation, while a copious index at the end of the chapter enables the student to find the solution of every irregularity in noun-forms which he meets with in his reading. So under the several classes of verbs, Part II., going on step by step with Part I., adds complete lists under each verb, Lamedh-Aleph, Ayin-Vau, Lamedh-Hè, etc., of those which deviate in any way from the paradigm in Part I., with the account of the deviation; and at the end of the book there is an index, by reference to which the student is directed to the explanation of the form of every irregular verb which occurs. Part II. is in fact a Thesaurus aiming at giving an exhaustive acquaintance with the forms of all Old Testament words. We cannot say that we have verified it throughout; but so far as the Pentateuch goes, we have not found it fail us. We should add that the summary of the history of Hebrew

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philosophy, prefixed to this part by way of introduction, is valuable, particularly in its earlier sections.

The syntax occupies comparatively a small part of the work. This might be expected from the nature of the case. A language which has only two tenses, the usage of which, in particular passages, is frequently to be gathered only from the attitude of the words in the clause—which uses the simple conjunctive particle in lieu of most of those particles which other languages employ to denote the various relations existing between clauses—and which deals so largely in the constructions "ad sensum" and "asyndeton," cannot present so complex a body of syntax as the Latin, or still more the Greek. Nevertheless, though there is less room for discussion and exposition in the case of Hebrew, there is great danger lest its syntax be reduced to a short string of generalities, which shall fail the student in the first serious syntactical question which meets him. The syntax, though simple, is by no means arbitrary; and if the particle *vau* is used to denote such relations as those indicated by *ut*, *cum*, *quod*, *etiam*, etc., a considerable body of examples would be needed to guide the student to the real usage of the language. Whilst we think that the general outline of the syntax in Part I. is very well done, we think that the author might with advantage have filled up this outline in Part II. with somewhat more of the fulness which he has bestowed on the accidence. A little discussion in its proper place will be found to be true conciseness; and so we think a fuller exposition of the rationale of number and gender in the syntax, of the *vau* conversive (or consecutive, as some prefer to call it), and particularly of the limitations and exceptions to its rules, and of the three leading particles, *vau*, *'im*, and *ki*, with some illustrations of government and idiom drawn from the classical or modern tongues (which the Hebrew very largely admits of, notwithstanding that the outlines of its syntactical structure are peculiar in itself), would have materially added to the value of this part of the author's labours. Those who are acquainted with Nordheimer's grammar will not need to be reminded how much this has added on the whole to its value and readableness.

There is another department of grammar to which we have not yet adverted, namely, the speculative or philosophical. It has not entered into Dr. Kalisch's plan to include this; he has written, as is natural in so diligent and appreciative a commentator, with a view to the actual interpretation of the Old Testament. He declines accordingly to enter on any of the interesting *quæstiones vexatæ*, such as the theory and mutual relation of the Hebrew tenses and (so-called) conjugations, or the rationale of the conversive particle, on which the more advanced student would have been glad to know his views. Of this we have no right to complain; especially since it may be said with truth, that in the present state of the knowledge of Hebrew in this country, a discussion of these points is by no means a pressing business of the grammarian. When a sound acquaintance with its elementary principles is current amongst those interested in its study, in anything like the same degree as it is in the case of Latin and Greek, it will be time

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enough to plunge into these higher discussions. There is humbler, but more useful, work to be done in the meantime. Taking Dr. Kalisch's grammar, then, for what it offers itself—as a sound, systematic, and complete exhibition of the facts and rules of the language,—we believe that students who are commencing the study of "the venerable tongue" will find it better suited for their purpose than any similar work to which they have hitherto had access.

The Physical Geology and Geography of Great Britain; a course of Six Lectures delivered to Working Men in the Museum of Practical Geology, Jermyn Street, in January and February 1863. By Professor A. C. Ramsay, F.R.S., President of the Geological Society. London: Edward Stanford, 6, Charing Cross, S.W. 1863. Pp. 145.

This little volume is a signal instance of the divorce of scientific from literary faculty and training; for its matter bespeaks the accomplished geologist as distinctly as its style bespeaks—in view of the grossest failures we may at once say—the tyro in composition. Witness the following sentences (from pp. 97, 98): "The strata there consists on the surface of chalk, which chalk is underlaid by greensand, which greensand is underlaid here by the Lias clay." "The waves beating upon the foundering masses destroys them day by day, and which in time will entirely disappear."

The literary execution apart, these are admirable lectures. Within small compass, with a minimum of detail, and with but a moderate draft on the reader's previous knowledge of mineralogy, they give a connected view and intelligible explanation, rendered all the more intelligible by a few appropriate diagrams, of the facts regarding the crust and surface, including the scenery, of our island. Owing to the immense variety of the geological phenomena of Great Britain, Professor Ramsay's work is an excellent introduction to the study of geology in general, and presents, in a definite and memorable form, to working men, whether clad in the moleskin of the mechanic, the many-coloured broadcloth of business men, or the sober black of the professions, as much of the general science as they can expect ever to take in, viz., the nature of its processes, and their main results.

Introductory Text-book of Physical Geography. By David Page, F.R.S.E., F.G.S., author of "Introductory and Advanced Text-books of Geology," etc. William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, 1863. Pp. 193.

What Mr. Page calls an "Introductory Text-book of Physical Geography," is a complete popular treatise on that subject, as full of information as an egg is of meat, eminently readable for the most part, and even where the pages bristle with hard geographical names, and numbers of four and five digits, as readable as a book incorporating the statistics of its subject can be made. Mr. Page addresses students,

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not cursory readers; the latter he honestly pronounces incompetent; to the former he offers the aid of lucid exposition, ingenious diagrams, and, at the end of each chapter, a recapitulation of the points established. The author maintains in this work his well-earned position among the foremost popular interpreters of science.

At p. 29, Mr. Page designates the strata of the oldest or Hypozoic period "Metamorphic or Crystalline." We subjoin an extract, in itself highly interesting, from p. 29 of Professor Ramsay's Lectures, already noticed, which shows that the former of these two designations ought to be abandoned, inasmuch as rocks of every age are found metamorphosed. The extract relates to gneiss, long deemed the oldest of metamorphic rocks. "In Scotland the larger proportion of the gneissic rocks are of Silurian age; in Devon and Cornwall we have gneiss both of the Devonian and carboniferous age. In the Andes there are gneissic rocks of the age of the chalk, and in the Alps of the age of the Oolitic and cretaceous series; and last year I saw in the Alps a species of gneiss of Eocene age, pierced by granite veins, these strata being of the age of some of those of the London and Hampshire basins."

Few teachers have classes advanced enough to use Mr. Page's text-book; but teachers themselves will prize it as a repertory of all that is known regarding the land and water of the earth, its climates, the distribution of its plants and animals, and the races of man. We should recommend it as a stimulant in the case of youths who have gone listlessly through the school curriculum, because they abhorred the abstract which was alone or chiefly offered them, and as a companion at once instructive and entertaining to those who, as soldiers, sailors, or emigrants, are about to pass through the wonders of the deep, and sojourn under strange skies.

Schiller's Wallenstein; new edition, with English Notes, Arguments, and a Historical and Critical Introduction. By Dr. A. Buchheim, one of the German Examiners at Eton College, etc. London: Whittaker & Co., 1862. Pp. 523.

Dr. Buchheim says, in his preface, that "the whole of the German language could be learned from *Wallenstein* alone." Thanks to the enthusiasm from which this exaggeration proceeds, the student of Schiller's great Trilogy has here an edition, conscientiously prepared and neatly got up, in which every difficulty, whether of idiom or of allusion, is briefly and effectually solved. Few of the verbal explanations would be needed by a reader familiar with German; but Dr. Buchheim has wished to satisfy the wants of *bona fide* learners, as these have been ascertained by himself in using Wallenstein as a class-book during eleven years' professional experience.

Not a few of Dr. Buchheim's verbal explanations are open to a criticism which the foreign interpreter can hardly ever escape, viz., that they miss the exact English equivalent of the original. Thus, at

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p. 134, the epithet *lastend*, applied to the ceremonious silence, *i.e.*, reticence of the Imperial Court, is rendered *heavy—oppressive* is the word. At p. 137 is a whole line which can be rendered word for word into good English :—

O ! lassen sie es länger nicht geschehen,
O ! allow it no longer to happen,

but in the notes *geschehen lassen* is rendered by the one English word *suffer*, and so the respective value of the two German words employed is not made to appear. We subscribe to the opinion that the best interpreters of foreign literature, and the best teachers of foreign languages to the English, would be scholarly Englishmen who should have studied the foreign languages abroad, each in its native seat.

Grammar of French Grammars, on an entirely new plan. The complete French Class-book. By Alfred Havet, Author of the French Conversational Method, etc. etc. London: W. Allan & Co. 1863. Pp. 483.

This is an improved and stereotyped edition of the work which has been long favourably known under the name of Havet's Complete French Class-book. The additional name now prefixed to the old one announces that the class-book contains a grammar, which it does, and more than that—a reading-book, an exercise-book, and a dictionary at the same time.

In scanning several chapters for the very purpose of finding a peg on which to hang a particular criticism, we have discovered one instance of redundancy and one of defect. The former is at p. 128, section 131, "*Qui* is the pronoun generally used for *whom* after prepositions, but only in mentioning persons and personified things." Since *whom* always refers to persons, the sentence ought to have ended with the word "prepositions." Then, nowhere in the volume, at least neither at p. 128 nor at p. 286, the pages treating of the relative pronoun, is the learner reminded in what circumstances the relative pronoun may be omitted in English, and cautioned not to follow the English idiom, but always to express the relative in French. As the book is specially intended to meet the difficulties of the English learner, this is rather an important omission.

However, Mr. Havet's volume is wonderfully complete, and the youth who has worked through it as a class-book, may keep it all his life long as a book of reference that will seldom disappoint him.

An Improved Principle of Single Entry Book-Keeping. By D. Sheriff. London: Longman, Green, Longman, and Roberts.

This is an excellent work on book-keeping. The exercises are well chosen, varied, and sufficiently numerous to familiarize the pupil with all the different kinds of transactions he will be likely to meet with in

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the course of ordinary business. This, taken along with the explanation of the treatment of the transactions, renders it a very superior text-book either for the private student, the young man in the counting-house, or pupils at school. To remedy the great defect of single-entry —that it is not capable of being tested by proof of the work done— the author has introduced into this system a trial-balance, which seems very effectual. By this method every sum is proved to be posted correctly, and errors are at once detected, because the difference in the debtor and creditor amounts in the day-book must be the same as the ledger-balances, if the work be correct.

Lectures on the History of England. By WILLIAM LONGMAN. Lecture Fourth, comprising the reign of Edward I.; Lecture Fifth, comprising the reign of Edward II. With Maps and Illustrations. Longman & Co. 1863.

THESE lectures were originally delivered in an abridged form to a society for the improvement of the labouring classes at Chorleywood, in Hertfordshire. The three preceding lectures were devoted to England under the Romans, Saxons, Danes, and early Normans, to a summary of the early institutions of England, and to the reign of Henry III. The lectures are by no means the sketchy, second-hand productions that popular lectures usually are; they are thoroughly practical and business-like; they tell their story with fulness and yet without tediousness of detail; and they show a far better appreciation of the capacity and the wants of the audience than professional lecturers and authors generally indicate. In his estimates of character, Mr. Longman is eminently candid and fair. In the cases of Edward I. and Wallace, for example, he succeeds in dealing out "even-handed justice" without betraying anything of the partisan. He does not doubt that Wallace "was guilty of savage cruelty," but he thinks that "the acts of Edward himself might have made him look at the deeds of Wallace with less severity;" and that Edward, by his execution of Wallace, wiped out, "with a bloody hand, the almost unqualified praise which would otherwise have been his due."

We suggest to schoolmasters that they should try the experiment of reading these lectures to their more advanced pupils. They are quite natural and simple in style, and thoroughly life-like in their pictures of the men and times of old; and schoolboys, we are sure, will feel in them a pleasant relief from the formally didactic histories to which they are accustomed.

Memorable Battles in English History: Where fought, why fought, and their results. With Military Lives of the Commanders. By W. H. DAVENPORT ADAMS. Griffin & Farran, 1863.

IN this volume Mr. Adams has described, in an interesting and popular style, those great battles which appear to him "to have

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largely influenced the fortunes of the British empire. These battles are Hastings, Lewes, Crecy, Agincourt, Naseby, Blenheim, Plassey, The Heights of Abraham, Waterloo, and those of the Crimean Expedition. In connexion with these battles he has sketched, briefly but carefully, the lives of Harold, De Montfort, the Black Prince, Henry v., Cromwell, Marlborough, Clive, Wolfe, and Wellington; one advantage of which is, that it enables the author to notice, more or less fully, the other great battles in which these soldiers took part. With all to whom political and social history is irksome, and within whose reach philosophical history does not come, this book will be a great favourite. Especially to schoolboys will it be welcome, for it is full of that activity of life and circumstantiality of incident in which they delight.

A Comprehensive Chart of Ancient and Modern Chronology: showing the Contemporary Events from the Creation to the present Era. Compiled as an Assistance to the Student of History. Jackson, Walford, and Hodder, 1863.

This chart consists of two sheets (which fold conveniently into an atlas-like book), the one containing ancient history, from the Creation to the Christian era; the other, modern history from the Christian era to the present time. The centuries in the earlier part, and half-centuries in the later, are divided by horizontal lines. The separate empires and dynasties are divided by longitudinal lines. Considerable space is devoted to the names of illustrious men (from Adam to Dr. Buckland), whose names are printed perpendicularly, in order that the line drawn under each may measure his life upon the scale of the chart. The chart is not a mere list of sovereigns, but mentions under each reign the leading events belonging to it, as wars, battles, treaties, and constitutional changes. The work is very carefully compiled, and cannot fail to be useful either for reference, or as a companion to historical reading.

An Atlas of Modern Geography. By Samuel Butler, D.D., etc. *A New Edition, with Additional Maps, and with Corrections from the Government Surveys, and the most recent sources of information.* Edited by the Author's Son. Longmans, 1863.

Dr. Butler's atlas was well worthy of being brought abreast of modern geographical discovery. It is handy in size, reasonable in price, accurate in detail, and remarkably clear and fine in the drawing of its maps. The only inconvenience we have met with in using it has arisen from Italy being given in two maps. No doubt the device enables the editor to give the country on a larger scale; but the inconvenience has been increased by the map of the northern half lying *across* the page, while that of the southern half lies *along* it. The im-

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provements in this edition are the following:—New maps of Switzerland, Palestine, Western States of America, Canada, Eastern Australia, and New Zealand; in the map of Europe, Iceland has been redrawn; careful revision of France, Italy, Austria, Africa, and Australasia; a carefully-tested new Index has been constructed.

The Edinburgh University Calendar, for the Year 1863-64. Maclachlan and Stewart, 1863.

The value of this useful annual is growing with its growth; and we are in hopes that ere long it will attain to the dimensions, as well as to the recognised authority, of the Calendars of the Universities of London, Dublin, Oxford, and Cambridge. The particular in which it is still most deficient is lists of graduates. In the London and Dublin Calendars, which are before us, we find complete lists of all graduates since the foundation of the University, and even of the under-graduates and freshmen of the year of publication. It was surely short-sighted policy to give up the publication of the List of Members of University Council, which appeared in the early numbers. Its retention would have given the work a far wider interest, and would make it—what it is not at present—a complete guide to the University, and representation of the University body.

Into the present edition several new features have been introduced. Conspicuous amongst these is the filling up of the Calendar proper, which previously presented a bare and blank appearance, with important events in the history of the University, including the dates of the birth and death of the most distinguished men who have been its professors. The alphabetical index of subjects is also a very seasonable addition to a work which contains all the information that intending students can require regarding the University.

How to Train Young Eyes and Ears: being a Manual of Object-Lessons for Parents and Teachers. By Mary Anne Ross, Mistress of the Church of Scotland Normal Infant School, Edinburgh. Gordon, 1863. Pp. 139.

It is the design of this admirable Manual of Object-Lessons rather to aid the teacher in selecting and arranging the material for his lessons, than to supersede actual preparation on his part. The lessons are graduated in three stages, corresponding with the beginning, the middle, and the end of the infant-school course; and extending from the commonest domestic objects and animals which first exercise the child's observation, to abstract qualities which excite the reflective powers. It would be difficult to over-estimate the educational value of these lessons. They are arranged with great clearness, and worked out in their details with a skill that shows the mind and hand of an experienced teacher. The lessons might be advantageously employed, in the case of more advanced pupils, as outlines for written exercises in English composition.

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We are compelled by the pressure on our space to delay our notice of Dr. M'Caul's able and learned work on *Britanno-Roman Inscriptions* (Longman).

Mr. M'Leod's *Wall Map of England and Wales, No. 3, Geological* (Longman), is by no means liable to the objection that we took to the Physical Map, that it was destitute of political features. In the new map, which is a most welcome addition to the apparatus of the school-room and lecture-room, the counties and chief towns are clearly indicated; so that we can tell at a glance what towns lie in each formation, or in what formation any important town or industrial district lies.

Messrs. Nelson have conferred a boon on teachers and on the public, by placing *Cobbett's English Grammar* within their reach, in a clear and elegant type, and at a very moderate price. At the end of our old edition, however, we find, "Six lessons intended to prevent statesmen from using false grammar, and from writing in an awkward manner." Why are these not reprinted? They contain some of Cobbett's best and wittiest criticisms.

The *Grammar of English Grammars*, by Jacob Lowres (Longman), justifies its title only by being a kind of concretion of the substance of most of the English grammars in use. It may be presumed that "cross-division" is rife when we say that Mr. Lowres gives us ten parts of speech, fourteen kinds of nouns, eight kinds of verbs, nineteen kinds of adverbs, and nine kinds of conjunctions.

The History of Modern Europe, by Thomas Bullock (Heywood), is a bad kind of book, for it is a mere dry expansion of chronological tables; and it is a bad book of its kind, for it violates common sense and the Queen's English in every page. Here is a sample:—"This year (1848) gold was discovered in California, and the cholera re-appeared in England. Parliament repealed the 'navigation laws;' the duty was taken off bricks and tiles (1850); the Australian Colonies were granted a Constitution and a Parliament; Lord Palmerston blockaded the ports of Greece, for an offence nearly a quarter of a century old, and Sir Robert Peel died through a fall from his horse (July 2). Next year," etc.; and this is History!

Bell's *History of Feudalism*, edited, with Examination Questions and an Introductory Essay, by Cyrus R. Edmonds (Longman), is hardly a fair title for a book, three-fourths of which is in inverted commas. Mr. Bell has done little else than tack together, by meagre historical summaries, quotations from authorities of every grade, from Sismondi to *The Leisure Hour*.

A Defence of the Queen's English, by Washington Moon (Hatchard & Co.), is a spirited brochure, in which the author replies to Dean Alford's "Plea for the Queen's English," by picking holes in the Dean's English. We may adapt the words of another Dean—

> "Thus every *critic* in his kind
> Is bit by him that comes behind."

We confess, however, to a liking for the common-sense views of the Dean, as against the champions of law and rule in this matter.

Ductor in Elegias, edidit C. A. Johns (Longman), is a help to the construction of Latin Elegiacs for boys of nine or ten who are reading Ovid. Mr. Johns' examples strike us as well-chosen Ovidian and quasi-Ovidian selections, not too hard, and not too easy.

Mr. J. B. Marsh has started an excellent idea in his *Book of Bible Prayers* (Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.), but it is not worked out with much success. It shirks the difficulty of the Psalms by omitting them altogether; and it includes the pharisee's prayer side by side with that of the publican.

We have received *The Chorale Book for England*, Congregational Edition,* London (Longman), 1863. This is a reduced edition of a book which, in its unabridged form, has attracted considerable attention amongst those interested in sacred music, as professing to supply a recognised want in Church-song. The work is one of a very high character. The hymns are religious in the best sense of the word, giving utterance to the sentiments of devotion in a catholic spirit and in unaffected language. The music is pure, simple, and solemn. A collection issued

* The Hymns from the German by Catherine Winkworth, the Tunes edited by W. Sterndale Bennett and Otto Goldschmidt.

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under so high auspices will doubtless be welcome; time alone will show how far it is suited to the taste and temper of this country. The edition before us contains the hymns, and the melodies of the chorales for congregational use. It is very well got up, and is extremely cheap. We may add that, though to outward appearance it is adapted to the service of the Church of England, all the churches of the country will find it available for the enriching of their psalmody.

We do not think the Rev. J. HUNTER'S *Examination Questions in Book-Keeping by Double-Entry* (Longman), particularly well "adapted for general use in schools." To make it a teachable book, explanations of the nature of each book, and an example of each, will require to precede the questions. In the second part, the author follows M'Lean with suspicious closeness.

We do not know whether to treat WHARTON'S *Solutions of Examples in Algebra* (Longman), as an original publication, or as a key to some work "not generally known." Viewed in either light, however, little can be said in its favour. The questions are badly classified throughout, and, in the earlier parts especially, sadly wanting in variety. The only parts that can be at all commended are the chapters on Equations, and even these do not admit of unqualified praise. The "problems" are good, and well solved; they are drawn very largely from the Cambridge Equation Papers, and will be valuable to many students and teachers who find St. John's questions anything but *Simple* Equations.

We have received Books iii. iv. v. and vi. of *Chambers's Narrative Series of Standard Reading Books; Sandford and Merton*, in "Laurie's Shilling Entertaining Library" (Longman); *The Nullity of Metaphysics as a Science among the Sciences, set forth in Six Brief Dialogues* (Longman); *A First Reading Book*, by J. R. LANGLER (Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.); Part I. of the Cheap Edition of the Works of PROFESSOR WILSON—*The Noctes Ambrosianæ*—the finest specimen of a "cheap edition" book that we have seen; The Proceedings of the *Congrès International de Bienfaisance de Londres*,—vol. i. French, vol. ii. English (Trübner & Co.), volumes of deep interest, to which we shall soon have occasion to return; *The Thirty-Eighth Annual Report of the Directors of the Liverpool Institute*, and *Education and Manufactures* (Longman), being Mr. Tyler's Report on Class XXXI., International Exhibition.

XI.—RETROSPECT OF THE QUARTER.

I.—UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Oxford.—In a Convocation, held on May 28, the various grants proposed in connexion with the new Museum were passed without opposition.

In a Congregation held immediately afterwards the forms of statute providing for the payment of a Demonstrator of Anatomy, and for the transfer of prints and drawings from the Bodleian Library to the Camera Radcliviana or the Randolph Galleries, were passed unopposed. The payment of £50 a year to the Radcliffe under-librarian, as a compensation for the loss of fees, was opposed, but was carried by 34 votes to 20. The Board of Electors for the Professorship of Experimental Philosophy was also opposed, but passed by 60 votes against 10.

The Johnston Theological Scholarship has been awarded to Mr. T. K. Cheyne, B.A., of Worcester College, and the Mathematical Scholarship to Mr. J. D. Davenport, B.A., of Balliol College.

There will be an election at Magdalen College in October next to eight or nine Demyships and two Exhibitions, of the value (room-rent and tuition included) of £75 per annum, and tenable for five years from the day of election. Candidates for the Exhibitions will be required to show that they are in need of support at the University.

The Denyer Theological Prize on the subject of "Sin after Baptism," has been awarded to the Rev. J. R. King, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Merton College.

In a Convocation held on June 2, it was agreed, after a division, to affix the University Seal to a petition to Parlia-

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ment against Mr. Bouverie's "Bill to repeal certain portions of the Act of Uniformity." Professor Conington asked to be allowed to open a debate in English. The Vice-Chancellor replied that the privilege of speaking in English could be granted only by the Chancellor. The vote was, therefore, immediately taken, when 132 supported the petition, and 51 opposed it.

Cambridge.—There will be an examination at Queen's College on Wednesday, October 7, and Thursday, October 8, for two Scholarships, open to all persons under twenty years of age who shall not have commenced residence in the University. The Scholarships will be of the value of £40 per annum each. One of them will be awarded for proficiency in classics, and the other for proficiency in mathematics.

The syndicate appointed by grace of the Senate, March 20, 1863, to consider what steps should be taken by the University in consequence of the proposed resignation by Professor Pryme of the office of Professor of Political Economy, have recommended to the Senate,—

1. That on the resignation of Professor Pryme there shall be established in the University a professorship to be called the Professorship of Political Economy.

2. That it shall be the duty of the professor to explain and teach the principles of political economy, and to apply himself to the advancement of that science.

3. That the professor shall be chosen and appointed from time to time by those persons whose names are on the electoral roll of the University.

4. That the stipend of the professor shall be £200 per annum, to be paid out of the University chest, and that this stipend shall be increased to £300 per annum so soon as the Lucasian Professor shall become entitled to receive the share of the income of Lady Sadler's benefaction allotted to the Lucasian Professorship under the provisions of the new statute, confirmed by the Queen in Council on the 7th of March 1860.

5. That the above-named stipend shall be payable out of the University chest so long as the person who shall first be appointed under these regulations shall continue to hold the professorship, and that it shall be open to the University to deal with the stipend of the professor as it may deem fit on the occurrence of a vacancy in the professorship.

6. That the professorship shall be governed by the regulations of the statute for Sir Thomas Adams' Professorship of Arabic, and certain other professorships in common, and the professor shall comply with all the provisions of the said statute.

7. That it shall be the ordinary duty of the professor to reside within the precincts of the University for eighteen weeks in every year between the 1st of October and the end of the following Easter Term.

8. That the fees to be paid by students attending the lectures of the professor shall be the same as those settled in the case of the Professor of Botany by grace of the Senate, Nov. 20, 1862.

There will be an examination at Jesus College on October 8 for two scholarships of the value of £50 and £30 each per annum. The classical examination will be in translations from Greek and Latin authors, with composition in prose and verse. The mathematical examinations will be in Euclid, algebra, trigonometry, and conic sections treated geometrically. Candidates are requested to send their names to the tutor before October 6.

The Vice-Chancellor has informed the members of the Senate that, in consequence of a requisition from a large number of members of the Senate, it is intended to offer to the Senate, at the Congregation on Thursday the 4th of June, a Grace (of which due notice will be given), for affixing the common seal of the University to a petition against a Bill now before the House of Commons, entitled "A Bill to repeal so much of the Act of Uniformity as relates to Fellows and Tutors in any College, Hall, or House of Learning."

The Chancellor's Medal, for the best English poem, has been adjudged this year to Frederick William Henry Meyers, scholar of Trinity College.

The Camden Medal, for the best Latin Hexameters, has been adjudged this year to Frederick William Henry Meyers, scholar of Trinity College.

The Porson Prize for the present year has been adjudged to W. H. Moss, scholar of St. John's College.

The *viva voce* examination for candidates for honours in law, will be held on Monday the 26th of October, and the

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following days, at ten A.M., in the Law Schools. Each candidate has to write an English essay, and to discuss a question of law. For the essay the subject is:—"What are the Limits of the Doctrine of Intervention in the Internal Affairs of a State?" It is requested that notice be given by candidates to the Regius Professor of Law at Downing College of their intention to appear at the examination, and of the question for discussion selected by each of them, on or before Friday the 16th of October.

London.—A meeting of the members of the University of London, and their friends, was held in the Convocation Room of the University, Burlington House, Piccadilly, on the 13th May for the admission of candidates for degrees. Earl Granville, K.G., the Chancellor of the University, presided.

Dr. W. B. Carpenter (the Registrar) read a report, which stated that at the Matriculation Examination of July 1862, 216 candidates were admitted. At the Matriculation Examination of January 1863, 96 candidates were admitted.

King's College, London.—The annual distribution of prizes to the students at King's College took place on Wednesday evening, May 20th, in the rooms of the College at Somerset House. The Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M.P., presided, and addressed the students on the advantages of education, and congratulated them on their ardour in its pursuit. He afterwards distributed the prizes, accompanying most of them with a kind word to the recipient.

Queen's College, Belfast.—The report of the President of Queen's College, Belfast, for the year 1862-3, has just been issued. The number of new students last year was 137, of whom 115 are matriculated. Ten years ago the total number of students in this College was 154; now it is 388.

Edinburgh.—The half-yearly statutory meeting of the General Council was held on the 21st of April, Sir David Brewster, Vice-Chancellor, presiding.

The Rev. K. M. Phin submitted three motions to the Council, all of which were carried, viz:—

1. "That the General Council represent to the University Court, that it is desirable to resume the annual publication in the Edinburgh newspapers, of the List of Honours awarded in the several Faculties and Classes."

2. "That the General Council represent to the University Court that members of the University Council, whose annual payments are not in arrear, should have a preference over those not connected with the University, in the arrangements for admission to any meeting at which the degree of LL.D. is conferred by the Senatus."

3. "That a Committee be appointed to report to the next meeting of the General Council upon the functions, privileges, and funds of the General Council, and upon the present condition of the register."

The last motion was opposed by Professor Lee, on the ground that the Council had no right to inquire into the funds of the University, which were entirely in the hands of the Senatus. The motion, however, having been carried by a large majority, an influential committee was appointed; Mr. Phin, Convener.

The Chair of Humanity in this University is vacant by the retirement of Professor Pillans, who has held it since 1820.

Glasgow.—On the 30th of March Lord Palmerston delivered his inaugural address as Lord Rector of the University.

The Winter Session was closed on May 1st, when the students were addressed by Principal Barclay. The Principal announced that arrangements had been made between the Senate and the Assistants of the Arts Professors, for the conducting of the Greek, Latin, Mathematical and Philosophical classes in the University during the Summer season. Attendance on these classes is not to count in the curriculum.

The statutory meeting of the University Council was held on April 29th, Principal Barclay, the Vice-Chancellor, presiding. The Rev. Dr. Smith moved: That as the Court may ere long be called upon to fill one or more chairs of the Faculty of Arts, the Council should represent to them the propriety of their bringing under the notice of all candidates for such chairs the opinions expressed in this Council in favour of the University curriculum being extended over part of the present long vacation, and the probability of this scheme being carried into effect by the University at

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no distant date. The motion was seconded by Mr. Mitchell, and unanimously adopted.

The Chair of Humanity in this University is vacant by the retirement of Professor Ramsay, who has held it since 1831.

Aberdeen.—The half-yearly meeting of the University Council was held on April 14th, Principal Campbell presiding. Replies to the representation of the Council were read from the University Court, from which it appeared that they were equally divided on the first of the two representations sent to them, viz., "That the library be removed from Old to New Aberdeen;" and that the subject was consequently deferred until the October meeting of the Court. The Court approved of the general tendency of the other representation, viz., "That the value attached to the different branches of the bursary test should be published." The Rev. Mr. Abel moved that a representation be made "that the attendance on the Natural History Class be not compulsory." A counter-motion was moved by the Rev. Mr. Davidson, and carried by a majority. A motion by Dr. Duguid Glass was adopted, to the effect that a greater distinction should be made between the preliminary examination at the beginning of the session, and the bursary test. It was resolved to record thanks to Lord Seafield for his exertions with regard to the Redhythe bursaries, and his successful endeavours to preserve them intact. It was also resolved to make a representation to the University Court on the subject.

St. Andrews.—The half-yearly meeting of the General Council was held on March 26th, Principal Forbes in the chair. Dr. Lees referred to the motion as to a science curriculum which he had submitted to the previous meeting, and said that as there was reason to believe that the objects he had in view would shortly be accomplished by means of a general measure for the whole of the Scottish universities, it was unnecessary for him to bring up the subject at present.

II.—EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

The Revised Educational Code came under the consideration of the House of Commons on Tuesday, May 5th, when Mr. Walter moved the following resolutions:—

"1. That it is the opinion of this House, that the sums annually voted by Parliament for educational purposes ought to be made applicable to all the poorer schools throughout the country (not being private schools, or carried on for profit), in which the attendance and examination of the children exhibit the results required, under the Revised Code, by Her Majesty's inspectors of schools.

"2. That to require the employment of certificated teachers, or of pupil-teachers by school managers, as an indispensable condition of their participation in the capitation grant, is inexpedient, and unjust to the managers of such schools."

Mr. Buxton seconded the motion. Mr. Lowe, in reply to Mr. Walter, contended that "the certificated teachers are the corner-stone of the existing system," and that this system, though not fully tried yet, was working too well to be disturbed.

An amendment to Mr. Walter's first resolution was moved by Mr. Adderley. Both the amendment and the first resolution were withdrawn, and, upon a division, the second resolution was negatived by 152 to 117.

The Venerable Archdeacon Garbett, at his recent visitation, gave the following account of the effect of the New Code on popular education, and on the Training Colleges in the diocese of Chichester.

It cannot be denied that the operation of the New Code by the discouragement of pupil-teachers, the withdrawal of grants, and the general lowering of certificates, is to withdraw the funds, without which they cannot be maintained. Already a great debt has been incurred by the Chichester College, and before the year's end, its Brighton sister will be formidably encumbered. As the Code now stands, there are two or three regulations of intolerable injustice. For instance, that a school can claim no grant if its numbers exceed the capacity of its largest room. The best schools are conducted in several rooms of moderate size—an arrangement of manifest advantage. It is likewise a piece of great injustice that the amount of the grants earned by examination and attendance, should be cut down unless the amount

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of school-pence and subscriptions shall equal it in amount, by which a school is punished for its poverty, and the most reasonable plea for aid is made a pretext for withholding it. The provision which prevents a child who has attained an early proficiency, from sharing the examination grant, and makes him a dead weight on the school, is capriciously cruel. Finally, it is a flagrant violation of covenant and all fair dealing to saddle the grant with the payment, to the existing pupil-teachers, of the sums guaranteed to them, not by the managers, but by that very Privy-Council which thus forces other people to pay its engagements. This is a cruel mockery and oppression; and the sums thus deducted may possibly exceed the annual earnings of the school.

Oxford Local Examinations.—The number of candidates who sent in their names for the Oxford local examinations in June was 1071, a number slightly in excess of last year, when there were 1052. Of these 1071, 795 are junior candidates, and 276 are seniors; the former being an increase of 39, and the latter a decrease of 20, as compared with the previous year. Of the 276 senior candidates, 218 offer themselves for examination in the rudiments of faith and religion, 36 in the Scriptures only. Of the 795 junior candidates, 592 offer themselves for examination in the rudiments of faith and religion, 150 in Scripture only.

The Civil Service Commission.—The eighth annual report of the Civil Service Commissioners was issued on Saturday. The nominations notified to them last year show a large increase, the number being 3649. On the greater number of the occasions for making appointments to clerkships, etc., competition has not been employed. In the War Office last year as many as 82 vacancies out of 107 were filled by absolute nomination. The nominations of Excise assistants, who are not subjected to competition, have also been more numerous in 1862 than in 1861 (162 against 95), and in 1862 there were 24 absolute nominations to situations in the Probate and Divorce Court. The ratio to vacancies of candidates examined has varied but slightly during the five years, the range being from 2·6 per vacancy—which was the proportion in 1860—to 3 per vacancy in 1862. In non-competitive examinations, the standard has necessarily become a low one, inasmuch as the examinations for clerkships of the higher class, such as those in metropolitan offices and in the provincial establishments of the Customs department, are now competitive to the extent which has been mentioned. In fact, for a great number of appointments the ability to read and write and to add a few figures is sufficient, and for others still less is required. It will not therefore be matter of surprise that in non-competitive examinations the ratio of rejections to certificates is very much smaller than it originally was. The appointments last year in the Civil Service for India announced for competition were 80 in number, and the Commissioners have been officially informed that 60 at least will be assigned in July next, if a sufficient number of competent candidates should present themselves. The number of candidates was in 1856 only 56, and gradually rose to 171 in 1861, at which it remained in 1862. Of these 171 candidates who competed for 80 appointments, 24 came from the University of Oxford, 20 from Cambridge, 16 from Scottish Universities, 25 from Trinity College, Dublin, and 8 from the Queen's University in Ireland. Of the 44 Oxford and Cambridge men, 25 succeeded; of the 16 from Scottish Universities, 13; of the 25 from Dublin, 12; of the 8 from the Queen's, 6; of 53 who had been at no University, 14. Of 96 Englishmen 42 succeeded; of 12 Scotchmen, 6; of 36 Irishmen, 21; of 20 from India, 9; of 5 from the colonies, 4. Two foreigners were unsuccessful.

South Kensington Museum.—The results of the annual May examinations of the pupils of science schools and classes by the Department of Science and Art, show a very satisfactory increase in the number of centres of examination and the number of pupils who have come up to be examined, although in some subjects there has been a decrease as compared with last year. The experimental sciences appear the most popular. It is rather remarkable that there should be a falling off in some of the natural sciences. The centres of examination have increased from 54 in 1862 to 71 in 1863, and the number of pupils examined in the different subjects has increased from 1943 to 2672.

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Decimal Weights and Measures.—A bill has been introduced into Parliament for decimalizing our existing system of weights and measures, and for establishing an accordance between them and those of foreign countries. The first and most important provision of the bill is that—

"From and after the expiration of three years after the passing of this Act, the unit of the measure of length or lineal extension shall in all cases consist of thirty-nine inches and thirty-seven thousand and seventy-nine hundred-thousandth parts of an inch of the imperial standard measure, and shall be and is hereby denominated the new yard or the 'metre,' wherefrom or whereby all other measures of extension whatsoever, whether the same be lineal, superficial, or solid, shall be derived."

The unit of the measure of surface shall be the square of the new yard, except that the square of one hundred new yards shall be the unit of land measure, and shall be and is hereby denominated the new acre, or the "hectare."

The unit of the measure of capacity shall be the cube of a tenth of the new yard, denominated the new quart or the "litre."

The unit of weight shall be the weight of a new quart of distilled water, denominated the "kilogram," the half of which shall be the new pound, consisting of one pound, one ounce, three drams, and three hundred-and-twenty-six-thousandth parts of a dram avoirdupois.

The bill has been prepared and brought in by Mr. William Ewart, Mr. Adderley, Mr. Cobden, and Mr. Finlay.

Degrees for Ladies.—The University of London has refused to grant to females the privilege of competing for its degrees. In the French news of April 7, however, we find that a young lady, whose name is Emma Chenu, appeared at the Sorbonne, as a candidate for the degree of "bachelor," and passed the examination, taking a high degree, amidst the applause of the students.

Progress of Native Education in India.—A petition from sixty-five of the head men of Coorg, India, has been presented to the Government, in which they affirm that although six years ago they manifested a dislike to a school established among them, it has done so much good, been so well conducted, and the great influx of European settlers makes the education of their children appear so necessary, that they have subscribed £600 to endow the school, at the same time asking the State for £1100 more. This, Lord Elgin has gladly promised.

Army Education.—New regulations have been issued (May 1) at the Horse-Guards, for the examination of gentlemen preparatory to their receiving commissions in the Army, in lieu of those issued on 1st October 1859. New regulations have also been issued (April 15) for the examination and appointment of Army schoolmasters. We shall lay these regulations before our readers in our next number.

III.—EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

The Established Church.—The report of the Education Committee presented to the Church states that the number of schools supported by them in 1863, is 195, of which 170 are mixed and 25 female; the number of teachers is 195, of whom 90 hold Government Certificates. The attendance throughout the year is 19,313, exclusive of Sabbath schools. The income was £4438, a decrease of £359 in 1862, against £5264 of expenditure, an increase of £326 in 1862. At the Edinburgh Normal School, there were in training 193 Queen's scholars; at Glasgow, 172. These numbers are 92 in excess of 1862. The Privy-Council ordered this excess to be dismissed. The Committee remonstrated, and have been able to make a satisfactory arrangement for continuing them without incurring debt. The income of the Edinburgh Normal School is £8556; the expenditure £8632. Of Glasgow, income, £5522; expenditure, £5509. The Committee have made special inquiries into the professional history of all the students trained by them during the last four or five years, with a view to meet the Privy-Council statement that only 50 per cent. of the female students, and 60 per cent. of the male students, became elementary teachers. The returns obtained established that of 214 female students trained during the four and a half years ended December 1861, after deducting those dead or married or waiting for appointments, less than 10 per cent. were not actually engaged in

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elementary schools. The returns of male students for the four years ended December 1862, showed that of 112 young men trained *for two years* in Glasgow, only 3 per cent. were not in elementary schools; and of 197 trained in Edinburgh for one or two years, 16 per cent., after deducting, in both cases, those dead, in bad health, and waiting for appointments.

With regard to the Minute of March 21, on Normal Schools, the Committee feel grave doubts whether, under its provisions, the Normal Schools can be maintained; but they have formed a plan of working which, if approved of by the Privy-Council, affords the only ground for a reasonable expectation that they will be able to maintain these important institutions.

From Presbyterial returns, it appears that 200 parochial teachers are reported as holding certificates of merit, —probably an under-estimate. The Committee also find that about 30 per cent. of those trained as pupil-teachers enter other professions than the scholastic at the close of their apprenticeship.

The General Assembly also adopted a recommendation of a Committee, "That three regular sessions at the Divinity Hall shall be held as constituting a full curriculum." They also sent down an overture for the consideration of Presbyteries, recommending that the literary examination of students, prior to entering the Divinity Hall, should be conducted by a special Committee instead of by the different Presbyteries of the Church. At the same time it was resolved to transmit to Presbyteries an overture submitted by Mr. Campbell Swinton, proposing that students who have taken the degree of M.A. in a Scotch University, should be exempted from the literary examination above referred to.

The Free Church.—The number of schools in connexion with this Church for 1862-3, is 607, with 630 teachers and 61,354 scholars. The income of the Fund to 31st March 1863, is £16,275, an increase of £844 on 1862. The charge on the College Fund of the Free Church for 1863, is £3939; the discharge £3609, leaving a balance of £330. The number of students at Edinburgh was 111, of whom 19 are Gaelic speaking; at Glasgow 61, of whom 16 are Gaelic speaking; at Aberdeen 32, of whom 6 are Gaelic speaking. Total 204, of whom 41 are Gaelic speaking.

IV.—MINUTES OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

The following Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education bear date March 21, 1863:—

"(*A.*) *Minute on Normal Schools superseding Articles of the Revised Code*, 96 *as far as* (*d*) *inclusive*, 98-103, 107-8, 110-118, 124, *and* 27.

"Their Lordships, with a view to limit their support of training (normal) schools to the proved demand for trained teachers, and to promote the training of teachers during two years, will make their grants to such schools upon the following plan:—

"1. In January 1864, their Lordships will ascertain—(*a.*) What has been the average annual sum paid to each normal school (exclusively of its practising school, and of the personal payments under Article 112) on account of students examined in December 1860-1-2, and of Queen's scholars, certificated assistants, and lecturers resident in the years 1861-2-3. This sum remains constant in the following calculations. (*b.*) What number of teachers, trained in it during two years, have, in 1863—(1.) completed the prescribed period of probation (Article 73 of the Revised Code), and become qualified to receive certificates from their Lordships in schools for the poor under inspection by her Majesty's Inspectors; or (2.) been reported by the proper department in each case to have completed a like period of good service, as elementary teachers, in the army or royal navy, or (within Great Britain) in Poor-law schools, certified industrial schools, or certified reformatories.

"2. Towards the maintenance of each normal school their Lordships will, in 1864, subject to the limitations in paragraph 4, grant a sum equal to four-fifths of the said average annual sum, together with £20 (in the case of females, £14) for each teacher qualified or reported as aforesaid in 1863.

"3. In the year 1865 the number will be ascertained of teachers qualified, or reported as aforesaid during the two

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years 1863-4; in 1866, the number during the three years 1863-5; in 1867, the number during the four years, 1863-6; in 1868, the number during the five years 1863-7.

"In 1865, the grant to each normal school will consist of three-fifths of the said average annual sum, together with £20 (in the case of females, £14) for each teacher qualified or reported during the two years 1863-4.

"In 1866, of two-fifths of the same average sum, together with £20 (in the case of females, £14) for each teacher qualified or reported during the three years 1863-5.

"In 1867, of one-fifth of the same average sum, together with £20 (in the case of females, £14) for each teacher qualified or reported during the four years 1863-6.

"In 1868, of £20 (in the case of females, £14) for each teacher qualified or reported during the five years 1863-7.*

"In 1869, and in each subsequent year, the earliest year of the five will be replaced by the year last ended.

"4. The annual grant to be paid to each normal school will be limited by the following maxima:—

"(*a.*) It will not exceed 75 per cent. of the expenditure, certified in such manner as their Lordships may from time to time see fit to require, of the last preceding year.

"(*b.*) It will not exceed in normal schools for male students £50, and in normal schools for female students, £35, for each student in residence for continuous training throughout the year in which it is being paid. The number of students in continuous training must not exceed—1. In England and Wales, the number of students for whom accommodation was provided in 1862; 2. In Scotland, the actual number in training in 1862.

"5. No further Queen's scholarships will be granted by the Committee of Council. The authorities of each normal school will henceforth settle their own scale of charges and exemptions. But they must allow in 1864 to all Queen's scholars admitted in 1863 the same benefits as they would have received under Article 114. The Committee of Council will allow to such Queen's scholars the same personal payments as they would have received under Articles 112 and 115.

"6. Candidates will be examined by her Majesty's Inspectors in December of each year at the several normal schools for admission.*

"7. Students who leave at the end of one year may obtain certificates after probation upon the same terms as the others, but the normal school will not be paid for them. An exception is made if the certificate be granted after probation in an infant school to a teacher trained in a normal school which, upon the report of the Inspector, has been previously recognised by the Committee of Council as providing a complete and special course of training for infant school teachers. The normal school must guard itself from loss by its terms of admission, embodied in a written agreement, and signed by each student. Their Lordships will not grant certificates to students who violate such agreements.

"8. The whole sum payable in each year to a normal school conformably to paragraphs 2 and 3 *supra*, will be ascertained in January; and, out of this ascertained sum, a grant as heretofore (Article 123 of the Revised Code) will be paid for students examined in the preceding December. The remainder of the said ascertained sum will be paid in equal parts on the 31st of March, 30th of June, 30th of September, and 31st of December.

"9. The grant for students examined in December will be paid although the college is not re-opened in the following year.

"(*B.*) *Minute extending the Revised Code to Scotland.*

"Read,—So much of the minute of the 9th of May 1862 as provides that in Scotland grants shall continue to be made as before the minute of the 29th of July 1861 (introducing a revised code of minutes and regulations), until further directions shall be given:—

"Resolved, —To give the following directions for adapting and extending the

* If A = the average sum paid in 1861-3, and T the number of teachers on each of whom £20 is to be allowed, the following formula expresses the result:—

Grant for 1864	= 4-5 A	+ £20 T	(1863).
,, 1865	= 3-5 A	+ £20 T	(1863-4).
,, 1866	= 2-5 A	+ £20 T	(1863-5).
,, 1867	= 1-5 A	+ £20 T	(1863-6).
,, 1868	=	£20 T	(1863-7).

* Among the articles of the Revised Code not cancelled, note 97 and 119.

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rest of the minute of the 9th of May 1862 to Scotland.

"1. The Revised Code shall regulate all grants to be made upon applications received after the 30th of June 1863.

"2. The Revised Code shall regulate the engagement of all new pupil-teachers in schools where the next inspection (Article 16) falls due after the 30th of June 1863.

"3. Until the 31st of March 1864, the annual grants falling due at the end of each school year (Article 17) shall be paid according to the Code of 1860, in all schools admitted to receive such aid before the 30th of June 1863.

"(*C.*) *Minute relative to the Inspection of Poor-law Schools, transferring to the Poor-law Board the undivided Administration of Articles* 138 (*a.*), 139-147, *of the Revised Code.*

"Their Lordships resolved that the Inspectors of Poor-law schools, now employed under the direction of the Committee of Council on Education, be transferred to the Poor-law Board, and, from the 31st of March 1863, charged upon its estimates; their salaries and emoluments being fully preserved to them."

The following minute on the Revised Code was dated May 19th:—

"Their Lordships resolved to cancel, after the 30th June 1864, Articles 136 and 137 of the Revised Code, and to add to Article 52 a fourth paragraph (*d.*), as follows, viz.:—

"(*d.*) By the amount of any annual endowment.

"Their Lordships, in order to facilitate the examination of individual children under the Revised Code, and to remunerate the Inspectors for their share of the additional labour imposed by it, resolved—

"1. To make it an instruction to the Inspectors to perform their duties in each school, not inspected for the first time, in the following order, viz.—

"(*a.*) Examination of the children in religious knowledge, where the Inspectors have to report upon it;

"(*b.*) Examination in the subjects prescribed by the Revised Code;

"(*c.*) General inspection of the school, allowing for previous acquaintance with it.

"2. To pay to each Inspector, in addition to his present emoluments, £50 on 30th June 1864, and on the same day in each subsequent year, provided that he has, within the twelve months then ending, himself examined, and marked in the official schedules—

"(*a.*) 12,000 children at the least; *or*

"(*b.*) Those presented for examination in the whole number of schools which he has been instructed to visit; *or*

"(*c.*) One-third of the whole number examined and marked in his district after the appointment of an assistant.

"These provisions may be varied after further experience.

"Their Lordships in order to provide further for the examination of individual children according to the Revised Code, resolved to appoint, as occasion might require, Inspectors' assistants upon the following terms:—

"1. Qualified candidates must (*a.*) have been pupil-teachers; (*b.*) have been trained during two years in a college of the same denomination as the elementary schools in which they are to examine; (*c.*) have passed each of their examinations without failure, and at the last of them have been placed not below the second division; (*d.*) have received their certificates after the usual probationary service in an elementary school of the same denomination as those in which they are to examine; (*e.*) have not exceeded their thirtieth year of age; (*f.*) be recommended by the Inspector under whom they are to examine.

"2. Their salary shall commence at £100 per annum, and shall rise by £10 per annum to £250. They shall be paid besides 1d. per child per annum after the first 12,000 examined and marked by themselves in the official schedules, but never more on this account than £50.

"They shall be reimbursed the actual expense of locomotion on the public service, but shall receive no further allowances.

"3. They shall not be competent to examine except in the presence of, or by a written order from, the Inspector, who shall name therein both the particular school to be examined, and the date of the examination. All notices to the managers of schools shall be given by the Inspector only.

"4. They shall be prohibited from

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following any employment whatever, except such as is official. Private tuition is expressly included in this prohibition.

"5. They shall hold a certificate from the Civil Service Commissioners."

V.—PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

College of Preceptors.—At a meeting of the Council, held on the 28th March, the correspondence relating to scholastic registration having been laid before the Council, it was resolved—(1.) That it is desirable that steps be now taken to form the general committee; (2.) That communications be opened with the officers of the various educational associations which have intimated their concurrence with the College on this subject, with a view to the appointment by those bodies of members of such general committee, as their representatives therein.

At a meeting, held on the 2d May, it was resolved that in future the pupils of non-members of the College should be admitted to the examinations on payment of the fee of 12s. 6d. each.

At the evening meeting in March, Mr. Dyer read a paper on "Physiology, with reference to its application to the preservation of health;" at that in April, Dr. W. B. Hodgson lectured on "The necessity for instruction in economics;" and at that in May, Mr. W. Watson, B.A., read a paper on "Methods of teaching arithmetic."

General Associated Body of Church Schoolmasters in England and Wales—Several large and important meetings of this Society, which now numbers 1200 members, have been held during the past quarter. 1. A meeting of the Yorkshire District was held on Easter Monday, at Ripon, when an animated discussion followed the reading of a paper by Mr. Thackeray, of Headingley, on "The general principles of the new Educational Code, with particular reference to the system of paying for results, and with some hints on the mode of conducting a school under the present regulations of the Committee of Council." Mr. Thackeray urged that the system of paying for results was as applicable to elementary education as to commercial and other pursuits; but the majority of those present were favourable to the idea that paying for results in education was impracticable, especially in rural parishes.

2. The Lancashire and Cheshire District held a meeting at Bury on April 18, which was attended by teachers from Bolton, Manchester, Liverpool, Wigan, Oldham, Ormskirk, etc. Two interesting papers were read and discussed, viz., one by Mr. J. Wilkinson, of St. Thomas' School, Ashton, Wigan, entitled "A prize essay on the question, Ought schoolmasters to be teachers of religion?" in which he advocated the affirmative proposition; the other by Mr. Prinsep, of Thomas' School, Liverpool, on "Physical education." Meetings have also been held in Derby, Salisbury, etc.

Northern Association of Church Schoolmasters.—The spring meeting of the Northern Association of Certificated Church of England Schoolmasters was held at Durham on Friday, April 10—Mr. William Lawson, of the Durham Training College, in the chair. The proposed Scholastic Registration Act was unanimously approved of, the meeting pledging itself to use its best exertions, in conjunction with the Associated Body of Schoolmasters, to obtain the sanction of the Legislature to such a measure. A sub-committee was appointed to consider the subject of retiring pensions for schoolmasters of thirty years' service. It was urged that retiring pensions were once promised to Certificated Schoolmasters by the Privy Council, on the condition that the whole or a part of the Augmentation Grant were refunded. This grant being now withdrawn, it was held by some that teachers were entitled to the fulfilment of the promise. Other members, however, were of opinion that the Government could not be expected to grant a pension absolutely (even though pensions are granted to teachers in army schools), but that they might be induced to assist those who made an effort to secure an annuity for themselves. It was explained, that if teachers would combine, an annual payment of between £1 and £2, commencing at the age of twenty years, would secure an annuity of £10, commencing at the age of fifty years. The third resolution was—"That this meeting has heard with astonishment that the reports of three of H. M. Inspectors of Schools have not been published in the annual Education Blue-Book, and it considers that the suppression of any reports, under any

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circumstances whatever, by the sole authority of the Vice-President of the Privy Council, is a violation of the duty owing to Parliament, and to the public at large."

Congregational Board of Education.—The annual meeting in connexion with this Board was held on the 13th May, in the Congregational Library, Bloomfield Street, Finsbury. Mr. Samuel Morley presided. The report stated that the circumstances of the last year had been of an encouraging character. The income had been £1694, 18s. 7d., and the expenditure £1390, 3s. 6d.

British and Foreign School Society.—The fifty-eighth general meeting in connexion with this Society was held in the School-room, Borough Road, on Monday, 11th May. The Right Hon. Earl Russell, K.G., presided. The secretary read a lengthened report, which, after a feeling tribute to the memory of the late Lord Lansdowne, stated that the average attendance of boys at the Model School in the Borough Road was 607; that of girls, 285. The balance-sheet showed that the total income of the year had been £16,205, 14s. 7d.; and the expenditure £11,585, 8s. 8d.; leaving, with the sum debited for the school materials and expenses, a balance of £114, 15s. 2d.

We have also received notices of meetings held by the following Associations, all of which continue to be conducted with remarkable spirit and regularity:—Wentworth Church of England; Bath Deanery; Torbay, South Devon; West Kent; Isle of Wight; Salisbury; West Sussex; Canterbury Diocesan Board; Metropolitan Association for Promoting the Education of Adults; National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor; Ladies' Sanitary Association.

Meetings of Social Congresses.—The Congrès de Statistique will hold its meeting at Berlin, from the 6th to the 13th of September, and about the same time will take place the fourth session of the Congrès International de Bienfaisance. At the end of the same month the Societies for Public Utility in Switzerland will meet at Geneva with much solemnity. The Council of the second Congrès of the International Association for the Progress of the Social Sciences has also decided upon that month for holding its meeting at Ghent, in Belgium, when some grand fêtes will be given at the inauguration of the statue of Jacques van Artevelde, the famous *ruwaerd* of Flanders. The programme of the Council of the Association invites all the friends of progress, without distinction of country, political opinions, or religious faiths.

The seventh Congress of the Social Science Association will be held in Edinburgh, under the presidency of Lord Brougham, from the 7th to the 14th of October.

Educational Institute of Scotland—*Kelso Branch.*—At a meeting of this branch on April 11th,—Mr. Hunter of the Grammar School in the chair,—it was moved, and, after a long discussion, almost unanimously agreed, that a uniformity of school-books in the schools of the district was desirable. The proposal of the College of Preceptors for securing a Scholastic Registration Act was approved of. The meeting next resolved to oppose the extension of the Revised Code to Scotland, as tending considerably to lower the status of the profession.

Kirkcaldy Branch.—The annual meeting of this Association was held on the 25th April,—Mr. Forbes, Kinghorn, in the chair. It was resolved to request the Lord Advocate to use his influence against the introduction of the Revised Code into Scotland. Mr. Low, Burntisland, read a paper on a new method of teaching penmanship, called the geometrical, which was generally approved of by the meeting.

Scottish Central Association of Schoolmasters.—This Society held their usual quarterly meeting on Saturday, April 10, at Falkirk,—Mr. Macturk in the chair. Mr. Neilson, Doune, read a paper on "School Histories." The meeting next considered "An Address to Parents," prepared by a committee of the Association. The address took up the points of irregular school attendance, and its effects on the scholar and the teacher; home preparation of tasks, etc. An animated discussion followed, and it was finally agreed to place the address in the hands of the chairman, to be condensed and

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laid before the Association at its next meeting. Mr. Macfarlane, Airth, moved a series of resolutions with reference to the movement to secure a Scholastic Registration Act, which, after considerable discussion, were unanimously adopted. At the annual general meeting of the Association, held in Stirling, on June 7th, Mr. Macturk, the chairman, read a revised draft of the "Address to Parents," above referred to, which was unanimously approved of, and remitted to the committee, to be printed and circulated without delay. Rules and regulations for the Association's library were also submitted to the meeting, and adopted. The treasurer's statement, which showed a small balance in favour of the Association, and the secretary's report for the past year, showing the Society to be in a most flourishing condition, were unanimously approved of. Attention was drawn to the recent minute of Council (May 19th), and it being felt that great importance attached to the interpretation of the word "endowments" as employed in that minute, it was resolved to communicate with the Committee of Council on the point. Thereafter, Professor Blackie delivered an address on the "Gradation of Schools," arguing in favour of a threefold division of schools—for boys, youths, and young men, similar to the German system, which, he showed by quotation from the Book of Discipline, was substantially the same as that recommended by John Knox, but which had never been carried out in its integrity, more particularly in regard to the burgh schools.

Free Church Teachers' Association.—At a meeting of the committee of this Association, held at Edinburgh on the 2d May, it was resolved—(1.) That the committee having already used every means to prevent the application of the Revised Code to Scotland, are of opinion that the success of any agitation on the subject at the present time is hopeless: But (2.) That the Code will lower the standard of education in Scotland: And (3.) The committee lament that the education question is in so unsatisfactory a condition that the Code (admitted by its author to be unsuited to Scotland) is yet to be introduced into Scotland. (4.) Every opportunity must be seized upon to urge forward the question of national education.

The Free Church teachers in Glasgow, at a meeting on April 18th, expressed their dissatisfaction with the position of teachers connected with the Free Church Education Scheme, and with the management of the fund, which engrossed 10 per cent. of the contributions.

VI.—APPOINTMENTS.

Walter Buchanan, Esq., M.P.:—Rector's Assessor, in Glasgow University Court.

Mr. Cameron, Bathgate Academy:—Head Master, Public School, Ardrossan.

Sir Archibald I. Campbell, Bart.:—Dean of Faculties in Glasgow University.

Arthur Cayley, M.A.:—Sadlerian Professor of Pure Mathematics, in the University of Cambridge.

The Rev. J. Ellis, of St. John's, Cambridge:—Head Master, Weymouth Grammar-School.

The Rev. Arthur Faber, M.A.:—Head Master, Proprietary College, Malvern.

Joshua G. Fitch, M.A.:—One of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

Dr. W. B. Hodgson:—Examiner in Political Economy to the University of London.

The Rev. James Lonsdale, M.A.:—Professor of Classical Literature, King's College, London.

Rev. William Raines, M.A.:—Lady Margaret's Preacher (Cambridge) for the ensuing year.

The Rev. G. Smith:—Head Master, King's School, Ottery, St. Mary.

William Walker, Burgh School, Forfar:—Parochial Schoolmaster, Tannadice.

XII.—CORRESPONDENCE, NOTES, AND QUERIES.

I.—OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS.

SIR,—Will you allow me, through the *Museum*, to call the attention of teachers interested in the Oxford Local Examinations to two proposals. The first is, that the delegates be requested to establish an *English* "section" for junior candidates; the second, that the "religious" subjects should be taken from their present anomalous position, and be ad-

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vanced to the dignity of a "section." I will state briefly my reasons for advocating these changes. 1*st*, It is becoming daily more widely acknowledged, that our own language has hitherto not received sufficient attention as a *study* in schools. While by no means underrating the importance of Greek and Latin, or of modern languages, I am sure that much more will have to be done in teaching English, thoroughly and systematically, than has usually been attempted; and I believe that the establishment of an English section for juniors would help to bring about this desirable result. 2*d*, The carrying out of this proposal will lead to a more extended acquaintance with our best authors. We make boys read Virgil and Horace, Xenophon and Homer, not simply that they may gain a knowledge of Latin and Greek, but because we hope their minds will be impressed by beauties of sentiment and expression. My belief is, that we might even more effectually work good in this direction with young boys by promoting the study of classical works in our own language. 3*d*, The establishment of an English section would, I anticipate, attract more candidates to these examinations. This would be a result of no slight importance. While I would not for a moment advocate the lowering of the present standard of work demanded, and, provided my second proposal were carried out, should be quite willing that junior candidates should be required to pass in two "sections" besides the preliminary subjects, I still believe that many boys, who are unable or unwilling to bring up Latin, Greek, or a modern author, would take this section. For the practical carrying out of the scheme, I would recommend that the examiners should prescribe a book of Milton, Cowper, or some other standard author; and that not only should a critical knowledge of the book be required, but a higher paper of parsing, etymology, and analysis, than the preliminary "English Grammar," should be set. An additional number of questions in English history might fairly be asked, while a simplification of the present "preliminary history" would be a benefit.

With regard to my second proposal, I should like to see "religion" made a "section," because, as I before hinted, it at present occupies a very anomalous position. It is made compulsory, except for those candidates whose parents object *conscientiæ causâ*. Now, without being at all uncharitable, I affirm, from positive experience, that serious evils attend this regulation. Objections are well known to be constantly taken *not conscientiæ causâ*, but because candidates have urged that they will have too much to do if compelled to take the religious subjects. Again, if, instead of the Church Catechism and Prayer-Book, Whately's *Christian Evidences*, or some equally suitable work, were allowed as an optional substitute, my opinion is that the section would be almost invariably taken, and thus the wishes of the delegates, for the largest possible number of candidates in this branch of the examination, would be realized.

If you deem these proposals worthy of notice, I would ask that the insertion of this letter may be considered as an invitation to schoolmasters to give you authority for affixing their names to a memorial to the delegates on the subject. I know the members of the delegacy are willing to pay kind and earnest attention to suggestions from those practically engaged in teaching; and I have the assurance of the excellent secretary (the Rev. J. Griffiths, M.A.) that he will cheerfully introduce these proposals if they receive the assent, and express the wishes, of many of those interested in the success and improvement of the Oxford Local Examinations.—I am, etc.,

B. A.

II.—THE REVISED CODE.

I.—Sir,—In preparing for the Revised Code, it will be necessary, in the first place, to ascertain to what extent the grants to schools are likely to be reduced by its operation. The following is a rough estimate of its probable effects upon my own school, which may be taken as a fair sample of one *in a large town*. Judging from the state of the school in former years, it may be inferred that one-third of the scholars will not have made 200 attendances within the year, and therefore must not be presented for examination; and that a further reduction of one-tenth upon the remaining two-thirds must be allowed for failures on examination. Of course, the amount of this allowance is a mere guess, as the standards of examination may be differently understood by different men.

Taking the present attendance of 250 as the average, we shall have—

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For 250 at 4s. (Capitation),	£50	0	0
,, 30 under 6 years of age who have made 200 attendances, 6s. 6d.,	9	15	0
,, 137 who have made 200 attendances, 8s., by examination, with a reduction of 1-10th for failures, .	49	5	0
Total under Revised Code,	£109	0	0

The payments to the present staff of teachers and pupil-teachers next year, under the *old Code*, would have been—

Stipends to four pupil-teachers,	£60	0	0
Payments for instruction to pupil-teachers, . .	18	0	0
Grant to assistant master, .	25	0	0
Do. to master, . .	23	0	0
Do. to mistress, . .	15	0	0
Required to pay teachers,	£141	0	0

Here is a deficiency of £32, which it is hoped can be met by a small increase in the rates of fees, and, failing that, ultimately by a reduction in the staff of teachers. It would, however, be much more economical for parents to pay at a slightly increased rate of fees, than to have less effective teaching for their children. PRECEPTOR.

II.—SIR,—If the condition of 80 cubical feet in the principal room for each pupil be insisted on, the grants for this school will be entirely withdrawn. This would be very unfair, as the plans were submitted to Government and approved of, before the buildings were commenced. And there is no doubt that the *three* rooms which we have got, are better adapted for educational purposes than one large apartment could be. However, in the meantime let it be supposed that all preliminary conditions are fulfilled, even to the expulsion of every grocer's son whose father has a journeyman in his shop (for I believe the school is to get no grants on account of such). For several years back we have received Government aid to the following amount:—

Master's certificate, .	£25	0	0
For teaching pupil-teachers,	15	0	0
Assistant, . . .	25	0	0
For teaching do., .	5	0	0
Four pupil-teachers (average £15), . . .	60	0	0
	£130	0	0

We have 250 pupils in average attendance. Our session commences in September, and our Government inspection takes place about the middle of January. First, we would get on our attendance—250 at 4s. = £50. Of our 250 pupils, 88 had been enrolled since the previous September, and consequently could not have completed their 200 attendances previous to the inspector's visit. They, of course, count for nothing to us. Suppose that the remaining 162 had completed their requisite number of attendances, and had all been successful in their examination, this would give us £64, 16s., which, with the £50 already spoken of, would be considerably below what we have been receiving under the old Code. But this is too sanguine a view of the case. Of the 250, 144 were admitted during last year, and therefore more than 88 must be struck off—say other 20, which is within the mark. Of the remaining 142, how many failures may we calculate on? Here it is more difficult to approximate. Let us allow 22 complete failures, leaving 120 at 8s., or £48. But what of our "little treasures," the pupils below 6? At last inspection we had only 16 of them, and of these, 2 had completed the proper number of attendances; so that, on their account, we would receive 15s,—making a total of £98, 13s.

But even this can only be obtained the first year. A considerable number will soon reach the highest standard, and must, of course, after that, be ranked as non-productives; and in schools where the teaching is most successful, this class will be the largest. So that it will happen that those who should require the most of the teacher's time, will be the very class whom he will be tempted to neglect. Few teachers, we believe, will be so much under the influence of sordid motives as to do so, but the Revised Code puts the temptation sorely in their way. From £80 to £90, then, seems to be the sum which, under the most favourable circumstances, this school will receive. With our present staff and rate of fees, it will be impossible to proceed as formerly. Our staff cannot be reduced, if the school is to be carried on with efficiency. Then, many of those for whose benefit the school was established, will be unable to take advantage of it if we are compelled to increase our fees. J. C.

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III.—Sir,—Ours is the model school or practising department connected with a Training College. We are in no way affected by the minute regarding Training Colleges, but are treated as an ordinary school. We have an attendance of between 600 and 700. We drew from the Government last year £480, and have in some years received as much as £600. Under the Revised Code we expect to get somewhere about £280,—a serious falling off certainly, but one which does not alarm us so very much. And for this reason; the lion's share of the grant formerly went to pupil-teachers, whom we considered scarcely worth the money expended on them. Under the Revised Code we can do with very few of these, and, in anticipation of its advent, no new ones have been appointed during the last two years. In this way we confidently expect that each teacher will get at least as much from the Government as hitherto, and that the school will in no way suffer in efficiency. We are a little concerned about the time of our inspection. It is in January, and unless we can get it put farther on in the year, or have our vacation earlier, none of the new scholars who come to us after the vacation will have completed their 100 days' attendance before the date of inspection. X.

IV.—Sir,—My school is what is called a missionary one, in a dense and poor locality in a large town. My prospects under the Revised Code are doleful enough. I have an attendance of about 120 or 130 children, of the very lowest class. They are rude and irregular, both in attendance and in payment of fees. I have three pupil-teachers under the old Code, and it is quite clear that, until their time is out, all that will be got from Government will be required to pay their salaries; so that in lieu of what I received on account of my certificate, I have the prospect of getting not one farthing for years to come. This is not all. My managers have had the utmost difficulty in raising the amount necessary to enable them to get the grant; now that it is incumbent on them to raise nothing, I fear no exertion will be made, and, of course, it is easy to see who will suffer. I trust matters may turn out better than I am dreading, but for schools like mine the prospect is rather gloomy. W. C.

V.—Sir,—The school with which I am connected has an endowment of more than £80. The Minute of 19th May cuts all connexion between the Government and us; for we could not realize more than £70 under the Code. We have re-furnished our school to please the Government, and got their pretty toys of parallel desks, and drugget curtains; but, *cui bono?* we must sever. I cannot say that I very much regret it. W. L.

VI.—Sir,—Formerly this school, averaging about 130 pupils, had three pupil-teachers; retaining the number 130 as a convenient number for calculation, let us see how it will be affected, first, in its income:—

Value of master's certificate,	£23	0	0
Gratuity for pupil teachers,	12	0	0
Grant for teaching drawing,	1	0	0
Average salary of three pupil-teachers,	45	0	0
Total average income from Government,	£81	0	0

By the new Code, two pupil-teachers, or one qualified assistant, must be kept. Against the above put the following:—

Average attendance, 130 at 4s.,	£26	0	0
Eighty who have been 200 attendances, at 8s.,	32	0	0
Twelve do., at 5s. 6d.,	3	6	0
	£61	6	0

There is thus a loss of nearly £20 upon the school income; a loss to the teacher—supposing that he keeps two pupil-teachers, and that the managers do not interfere with the grant—of nearly £5; in many cases where school items are paid from it, it will be much greater. If an assistant is kept instead of pupil-teachers, the loss will at least be £10 or £15 more to the teacher personally.

Teachers' income on the supposed condition.

Old Code.

Augmentation,	£23	0	0
Gratuity,	12	0	0
Drawing grant,	1	0	0
	£36	0	0

New Code.

Total school income, £61, 6s., from which deduct £30 for two pupil-teachers,	31	6	0
Loss to teacher,	£4	14	0

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Or, with an assistant, deduct £50 from total school income, and £11, 6s. remain to the teacher, instead of £36 as above. What now remains for the indispensable *sewing-mistress?* A further reduction of at least £10 or £15; and in many cases it will be impossible to find a suitable person on any conditions. This circumstance alone will operate to the exclusion of almost all the smaller country schools from the vaunted generosity of the new Code towards them. W. S.

III.—THE SUPPRESSED REPORTS.

SIR,—Since the last number of the *Museum* appeared, Mr. Lowe has given further evidence of his determination to uphold the Revised Code at any cost. Three of the reports of H. M.'s Inspectors have been suppressed, ostensibly because the writers did not keep themselves within the prescribed limits, but really because the opinions of these writers were considered unfavourable to the Vice-President's pet scheme. The subject has been brought before Parliament, but it is easy to give a satisfactory answer to a member who is, perhaps, but imperfectly acquainted with the whole bearings of the case; the friends of education, however, ought not to let the subject rest. The reports of the inspectors are the best and almost the only evidence we can obtain of the state of elementary education in the country; and if only such facts are allowed to appear as favour one side of the question, the Blue Book will soon come to be looked upon, both by Parliament and the country generally, as utterly worthless. Besides, the suppression of the reports inflicts an injury upon the respective districts over which these particular inspectors preside. Two of those gentlemen belong to the north of England; and the school-managers and teachers under their supervision must be kept in ignorance of the state of education around them, and of the opinions of the inspectors whom they most regard, simply because these gentlemen are so unfortunate as to differ in their conclusions from Mr. Lowe. It is time the country should declare that there are limits to the despotism of even a vice-president of the Privy Council.—I remain, Sir, yours faithfully, BETA.

IV.—SCHOLASTIC PROMOTION.

SIR,—Some time ago you adverted to the great drawback of the profession of the elementary teacher; the absence, namely, of prizes to which industrious schoolmasters might aspire. At the same time you pointed to the office of inspector's assistant as one which might profitably be given to deserving teachers. By the Minute of the 19th May last, provision is now actually made for the election of teachers to the post of examiners. But the salary which is offered to such examiners, particularly in the early years of their career, is quite inadequate to their just claims. Allowing that they can obtain annually the maximum amount of additional emolument (£50), they will be in receipt of a salary of £150. But from this sum very considerable deduction must be made; for it is to be observed that no allowance whatever is made for the *hotel expenses* of the assistant. The actual cost of locomotion is the only extra for which he can claim. The salary of the assistant is about one-third of that of the inspector; and his additional emolument increases one-third as fast as does the inspector's. Now, assuming that the same ratio will obtain, between the hotel expenses of the assistant and the presumed hotel expenses of the inspector, (£200),—and the ratio cannot be less,—then a sum of £70 must be struck off the nominal salary before we get at the figure which properly expresses the amount at the disposal of the assistant. Moreover, the maximum additional emolument can only be obtained in populous districts; and £25 will perhaps fairly represent the average amount of such emolument. It is not to be expected that the best men in the profession will accept such remuneration as this; and to appoint men other than the best will bring the office into contempt. The Committee of Council have thrown away a chance of conciliating the certificated teacher, who has of late received very hard usage at their hands. The office of examiner is one which the profession has long sought to secure for its members; and when the Committee of Council had at last determined to grant the boon, they should have taken care to make it worthy of acceptance. It would have been a gracious act, and a politic, as tending to allay in some measure the irritation which recent legislation has produced, if they had added to the anticipated value of the prize, instead of paring it down to the barest limit.—I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

ORBILIUS.

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XIII.—EDUCATION AT HOME AND ABROAD.

HOME.

It is the belief of many persons that we are experiencing a sort of national reaction as regards education. The Revised Code is spoken of as the official form which this reaction takes, while the popularity of Mr. Walter's motion, the honour paid to reading, writing, and arithmetic, and the severe criticisms directed against the unlucky certificated teachers, are referred to as evidence of a corresponding recoil of public opinion. It may be true that the zeal of a few has waxed cold; that some, disappointed because education has not done all that they hoped it would do, have wearied of their grand passion; that the jealousy of others has been roused; lastly, that the faults and infirmities of masters, mistresses, assistants, and pupil-teachers have excited a feeling of antagonism in the breasts of impatient and over-fastidious theorists. But, nevertheless, the spirit of the nation is still progressive in this as in other respects. The importance of education is recognised as heartily as ever; but soberer and more practical notions are now entertained respecting it. It is felt that the scale of operations must be limited; that it is better to do a little well, than to encourage a superficial meddling with a wide range of subjects; above all, that what the nation spends in the great work of popular education should be laid out to the best advantage, and for the benefit of those chiefly who are really entitled to such assistance. It was undoubtedly to secure these objects that the Revised Code was put forth; and though there may be some features of that Code open to criticism, and though there was something ungracious in the manner of its publication, and something harsh in the uncompromising severity and suddenness of the changes which it introduced, yet it is not improbable that its ultimate effect upon the soundness and thoroughness of purely elementary education may be beneficial. Already it has made its mark. There is no mistake about the increased attention paid in national and primary schools to the all-important subjects of reading and arithmetic.

Another result of the Revised Code, however, is more to be lamented. It is said that in consequence of the alarm and distrust which it has excited, and the pecuniary loss which in some cases it entails, many teachers are giving up their calling, and betaking themselves to other occupations. This is greatly to be regretted, for though the panic is natural, it is, we believe, uncalled for; the position of teachers may be affected at first, but will in due time recover itself, while any hasty abandonment of profession must often lead to disappointment and privation. The withdrawal, however, of some of the best teachers must be felt as a serious loss to the cause of education.

In the meantime, the certificated masters and mistresses will probably consider that they have gained an important advantage by the defeat of Mr. Walter's memorable and much-talked-of motion. It

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was brought forward on the 8th of May, and was negatived by a small majority. Whatever may be the merits of the question, it is certain that Mr. Walter did not make the most of his case. His speech was more wearisome than "the thrice-told tale" that "vexes the dull ears of a drowsy man." It was a long prolix recitation of the substance of communications addressed to the mover by various correspondents, each of whom had his little grievance to exhibit, and his little experience to offer. On the other hand, it was met by Mr. Lowe in a speech vigorous, decisive, and slightly contemptuous. On the one side little was said that required answering; on the other, little urged that was really conclusive and unanswerable. It is still an open question whether education would gain or lose by the adoption of Mr. Walter's proposals. That a certificate is worth something is true; and that trained teachers are superior to untrained is an established fact: but it is still possible that the effect of admitting schools under uncertificated teachers to a share in the public grant might be to improve the general quality of education throughout the country, and ultimately to increase the demand for certificated teachers themselves. The simple introduction of the Government Inspector into schools now closed against him, would stir the dry bones of education wonderfully in many places.

But if the monopoly of the certificated teachers has, for good or ill, been sustained, the TRAINING-COLLEGES have received notice that they must henceforth submit to an abatement of that "fulness of bread" in which they have for some time rejoiced.

The expected Minute has come forth big with the future destinies of these institutions. It will be found in another place, and those who care to do so, may make themselves master of its somewhat intricate details. Its principles are, *first*, the limitation of the grant to not more than 75 per cent. of the expenditure; and *secondly*, an effort to adjust supply to demand by ultimately making grants on behalf of those students only who, after a residence of two years, actually become teachers in elementary schools under Government inspection.

These principles, it must at once be conceded, are reasonable and sound. But what will be the effect of the Minute on the colleges themselves?

It will very probably put an end to the existence of some of them, but it will do so because they have become too numerous for the educational wants of the country. Hitherto it has been necessary to carry on the manufacture of teachers on a very large scale to overtake the pressing demand; but that demand has now been overtaken and indeed apparently outstript, and hence the colleges would, under any circumstances, have very shortly suffered from the effects of overproduction. The new Minute therefore will only do what would at all events have been done by a sort of process of natural selection. The managers of several of the training institutions have decided on requiring the pupils to make a small payment during the first year of residence, and on allowing them to have the second year's training gratuitously.

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This seems the wisest course that can be adopted. It will, if carried out, put the colleges in a safer and less dependent position, and will lead the pupils to appreciate more highly the education they are receiving, and to turn their opportunities to better account. The only doubt is, whether a sufficient number of candidates for admission can be obtained on these terms; whether, in short, the pupils will be able and willing to pay a part of the cost of their own training. No doubt amongst pupil-teachers there are many to whom this will be a matter of some difficulty; but in most cases a little effort on the part of parents, friends, and patrons will provide the means; and assuredly that is a healthier state of things which requires such a sacrifice, than that which lavishes a perfectly gratuitous education on numbers of young persons so freely as has of late years been done. The profession of a teacher should be one of such honour and advantage, that men will seek it eagerly, and make personal sacrifices to fit themselves for it.

That the position of an elementary schoolmaster may ultimately attain to this character, every friend of education must sincerely desire. Another Minute, just issued by the Committee of Council, can hardly be accepted as a very satisfactory move in this direction. The important Minute referred to announces the intention to appoint SUB-INSPECTORS or EXAMINERS to work in subordination to the present staff of inspectors. They are to be chosen from the class of elementary schoolmasters, are to be nominated by the inspectors, and are to receive an annual salary, commencing at £100, and rising, by an addition of £10 in each year, up to the maximum of £250. In addition to this, they are to receive a small capitation fee on each child above a certain number examined by them.

Such is the first step towards breaking the dull monotony of that "table-land," which, to borrow the words of the Education Commissioners, the schoolmaster has hitherto been doomed "to tread till he dies." The prizes are not very splendid, and they will certainly be few "among so many;" nor is it an improbable result of the arrangement that schoolmasters of long standing and experience will find themselves under "inspection" by those who, a few months before, were under their care as pupils.

Our survey of the education question during the past quarter would not be complete without a brief reference to the arrangement by which the principle of payment for *results* has been extended to teachers connected with that favoured section of the education movement, the extravagances of which are so patiently tolerated, viz., the DEPARTMENT of SCIENCE and ART.

Several other Minutes have, since our last review, issued from the penetralia of the Council Office, one at least of which demands more serious consideration. By one of these the Inspectors of Poor-law Schools employed under the direction of the Committee of Council on

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Education, are transferred to the Poor-law Board, and from 31st March 1863, charged upon its estimates.

By another Minute, the REVISED CODE is extended to SCOTLAND. The 30th of June is the last day on which pupil-teachers can be appointed under the old plan. Schools under inspection will, however, receive one year's grant under the old Code in all cases where their Government year ends before 31st March 1864. After that date the Revised Code will come into full operation in Scotland, as it does in England on the 1st of July of the present year. When it was announced that Scotland was to be no longer exempt, there were, as might have been anticipated, a few mutterings over the country; but they have been as nothing compared with the war that thundered on the gale when the Revised Code was first launched. This does not necessarily imply any general alteration of feeling on the subject of the Code, but may be accounted for on other grounds. It has not been forgotten that the Lord Advocate very plainly intimated, that if his ill-starred enterprise of last year should fail, nothing remained for Scotland but the Code. It was evident, too, that the House of Commons was determined to allow Mr. Lowe and his friends to give their scheme a fair trial. Moreover, teachers are aware that the Code now, though by no means to their mind, is almost innocuous compared with what it was when issued in July 1861. It is now much more simple and workable. From these and other causes the teachers of elementary schools, if not acquiescent, have been almost quiescent on the subject, moving mainly in the direction of getting practical difficulties obviated. In this we think they have acted with great prudence; clearly the time to agitate against the Code was at its first promulgation.

Yet another Minute, effecting an alteration on the Revised Code, has excited considerable attention in Scotland. It applies to ENDOWED SCHOOLS, and proposes that after 30th June next year the Government grant shall each year be reduced "by the amount of any annual endowment." This will press so hardly on some schools as to make it really a matter of loss for them to retain Government connexion. Of this class the Madras, or Bell's Schools, in St. Andrews, Edinburgh, Cupar-Fife, etc., are examples. These schools have endowments ranging from £60 a year to several hundreds; and we suspect that if the grants be reduced by such sums, they will be scarcely worth the taking. The schools aided by the Dick and Milne bequests will be in the same category. It was also suspected that the Minute would be applied, in a modified form, to the Parish Schools. But we are glad to observe, by Mr. Lowe's answer to Mr. Murray Dunlop's question on the subject, that no part of the legal salary of Parochial Schoolmasters is to be considered as "endowment," but that the whole is to be reckoned rather as a charitable contribution. The distinction will certainly be more profitable in its result than it is complimentary in form.

In connexion with this subject we beg to direct the attention of our

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readers to several LETTERS* received from elementary teachers, giving a sketch of the probable working of the Code in their schools.

The educational year whose history is recorded in the BLUE-BOOK for 1862-63 has been one of transition, and therefore of doubt not unmingled with fear. That this uncertainty was, to some extent, shared in by the Department, is shown by the fact that, while the estimate for 1862 was the largest ever granted, exceeding that of 1861 by £38,325, the actual expenditure for 1862 is less than that for 1861 by £38,698; so that the actual falls short of the estimated expenditure by £67,376. The heads under which the decrease occurs, are chiefly those of building and pupil-teachers. In the former, it is due to several causes; for example, to the exclusion of normal schools (by Minute of 21st January 1860) from the building grants; to the reduction (by the same Minute) of the rate of aid for elementary schools; to the decrease in the number of schools built in 1862 (47 fewer than in 1861), and this owing to the "satisfaction of demand;" and, the Committee add, "(in some degree) to stricter administration." The decrease under the head of pupil-teachers is attributable chiefly to the fact, that 1861 was the year in which the teachers appointed in 1856 completed their apprenticeship of five years; and as that year showed an excess of admissions, their disappearance makes a correspondingly excessive void. The decrease under the heads of books and apparatus, and industrial schools, represents the gradual cessation of these grants, rather than any change in their amount. The total decrease amounts to £57,541; but it is reduced by an increase (under the heads of certificated teachers, assistant teachers, capitation, and training colleges), amounting in all to £18,843. The number of schools actually inspected in 1862 was increased by 18, the number of scholars by 28,736; and as the number of children on whose account capitation grants were paid for the first time (26,108) nearly corresponds with this, it is inferred that the attendance during the year has been better; and this again indicates that the prospect of the Revised Code has not lessened the amount of educational work that is being done. It appears, nevertheless, to have checked the rapidity of increase, both in respect of the number of new schools inspected, and of the number of new scholars paid for. In 1861, the number of new schools was 497, in 1862 it is only 18; in 1861, the number of new scholars paid for was 54,220, in 1862 it is only 26,108. It is noteworthy, at the same time, that the relation of new scholars to new schools is much greater in 1862 than it was in 1861; and this may be taken as a confirmation of the inference stated above, that the attendance over all the schools has been more considerable, as well as more regular.

Though the new report is dated a fortnight earlier than that of last year—and we are thus enabled to lay these general results before our readers in our present number—its publication is still so late as to compel us to postpone all consideration of the Inspectors' Reports, and the important points raised in them, till our next number.

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In moving the ESTIMATES for 1863-4, which amounted to £804,002, being £38,117 *less* than last year, Mr. Lowe took occasion to refer to the eighteen new schools, in proof of the successful working of the Revised Code. The number of children examined in these schools was 512, and the "rejected" were to the "passed" candidates as two to three. For these children, the schools had obtained 8s. 3d. a head; and as these schools had not had the advantage of being brought up to the standard of older establishments, he thought there was good reason to believe "that the children in the Council's schools would earn at least 10s. a head." If this prediction be sound, not a few will be agreeably disappointed.

The fact that the debate on the Estimates reverted to a point which had been discussed at a previous part of the sitting, viz., the suppression of certain of the INSPECTORS' REPORTS, showed how strongly the House felt regarding the injustice and dangerous tendency of that proceeding. There is no doubt of the fact that three at least of the reports which should have appeared in the new Blue-book have been suppressed. The main ground on which Mr. Lowe defends this proceeding is to be found in his statement that the Inspectors "should maintain silence if they cannot agree with the heads of their Department." The plain English of this is, that the Inspectors must insert nothing in their reports which is disagreeable to Mr. Lowe; otherwise, they cannot be printed. Mr. Walter vouched for the fact that several reports have been "garbled by the Education Office;" and asked the very pertinent question, "where are we to look for information to guide us, if not to the reports of those experienced gentlemen?" This raises the question, for what purpose are these reports written and printed? Certainly for the information of the House of Commons. But the reports must be utterly worthless for this purpose if it is understood that they are to contain only what squares with the policy of the Council Office. Why, the policy of the Council Office itself is to be judged by these reports. It is perfectly monstrous, therefore, to give to the Vice-President the power of tampering with the very evidence by which his own official conduct is to be tried. Lord Robert Cecil did not put the case too strongly when he characterized it as "a conspiracy for keeping the truth from the House of Commons." Like the Israelites of old, Mr. Lowe will only accept the report of those "spies" who say that the land "eateth up the inhabitants thereof," and that they "were in their own sight as grasshoppers." As for the Joshuas and Calebs, he will "stone them with stones."

It is to be observed that the plea of "irrelevant matter," of "philosophical disquisitions" imported into the reports, is given up by Mr. Lowe himself. He puts it upon the broad ground of "loyalty to the department." He thus gives fair warning to the Inspectors to see that their reports are orthodox, else they will go into the waste-basket. Mr. Lowe might as well write the reports himself. This is a kind of treatment to which the House of Commons will surely never submit.

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Mr. Dilwyn's "Bill to amend the law relating to endowed schools," has been withdrawn, with an intimation that it will be reintroduced next session. Mr. Lowe "rejoiced" on the occasion, and was evidently in a very different humour from that in which, with evidently shortened temper, he indignantly complained of the questions of Sir S. Northcote and Sir J. Pakington, and announced, as a puzzled schoolmaster might to his boys, "that he would answer no more of them!"

Passing on to take a view of the status of MIDDLE CLASS EDUCATION, we find ourselves in the position of having little or nothing remarkable on which to animadvert. The movement in favour of SCHOLASTIC REGISTRATION is occupying the attention of Teachers' Associations in different parts of the country. The Council of the College of Preceptors have issued an address on the subject, in which they express their satisfaction at finding "an almost entire unanimity among teachers of all grades and classes in favour of such a measure as is sketched in their circular." They have, therefore, resolved to proceed without delay to the formation of a "General Committee;" consisting of representatives from all the associations that have expressed their approval of the movement, with the view of bringing the subject before Parliament next session.

The fifth Annual Report of the CAMBRIDGE SYNDICATE ON LOCAL EXAMINATIONS has been presented to the Senate. It shows progress, but not very great or decided progress, in the movement. One feature, however, deserves to be noticed. At the Devon County School the authorities, instead of presenting two or three picked candidates, which has hitherto been the custom everywhere, submitted whole classes for examination. This is the proper course, and when it is adopted, the examination will be—what it certainly otherwise is not—a real test of the character of the school and the quality of its teaching. But the Devon County School is one that has not many compeers amongst the middle schools of the country.

In the higher educational regions, the most important event is the *quietus* given with the "bare bodkin" of official veto to the ordinances of the DURHAM UNIVERSITY COMMISSIONERS. These gentlemen, amongst whom Bishop Baring and the Right Hon. Robert Lowe were conspicuous, prepared a very root-and-branch scheme indeed, which, while it promised largely to extend the practical usefulness, and to increase the practical efficiency of the University, seemed to many to show very little consideration for the rights or interests of the Church in connexion with it. The ordinances of the Commissioners have, however, been disallowed; and as they will not amend this scheme or alter its principles, they and their report must necessarily (as Mr. Carlyle says) "vanish into the eternal silences." But the University of Durham will not therefore, we hope, be left in its present disgraceful condition of emptiness and inapplicability to the educational requirements of the time. The claims of the Church are, of course, entitled

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to be fairly considered, but the University revenues and endowments must, as the modern phrase is, be somehow *utilized*.

"The Commissioners under the UNIVERSITIES (SCOTLAND) ACT, 1858," have issued a voluminous report, explaining generally the nature and effect of the ordinances which they have issued in the exercise of their very extensive powers, and the position in which the Scottish Universities have been placed by the combined operation of the Statute and of their ordinances. The report having come into our hands when on the eve of publication, and after considerably more than our usual amount of space was fully occupied, we are unable to do more here than merely announce its publication. The delay, however, will the better enable us, in our next number, to make a complete review of the proceedings of the Commission calmly, so as to estimate the nature and extent of the changes which have been introduced.

Oxford, June 20th.—On the 15th April the outgoing proctors laid down their office, and the new proctors for the year entered on it. According to custom, Mr. Riddell, Fellow of Balliol, as senior proctor, reviewed the past academic year in a Latin speech. These orations have nothing of the license of the old Terræ Filius, yet they are not empty formalities. Mr. Riddell launched one or two sly satiric shafts, but feathered with Latinity of more than ordinary eloquence. Most of these points, however, were of local application merely. Two subjects of general interest—the growth of luxury and the scanty numbers of the students—Mr. Riddell mentioned with regret, but without attempting to appreciate. On the latter point he said—

"Which of us does not grieve when he thinks of the prolonged dearth of students which our University suffers under? We are too apt to be satisfied when we see our college rooms full. But the capacity of *alma mater* is not to be measured by the capacity of our college buildings. She will not have approved herself equal to her high vocation, till her halls shall be thronged by a population of learners bearing something like a proportion to the whole population of Britain."—P. 5.

We do not remember to have heard from the lips of an academic functionary so explicit a confession of the astonishing weakness of the University. That the number of students at the University should have remained almost stationary, while the population of the country has doubled, and its wealth decupled, is a phenomenon which ought to have received much more serious attention from the ruling body of the University than it has done. To comprehend the full extent of the evil, it must be added that nearly one-half of the students that Oxford numbers on its books are recruited by heavy bounties. Upon another numerous section—the candidates for orders—a University degree is almost compulsory. If the College endowments did not exist, and if the bishops were to cease to require, or at least to encourage graduation, to what a handful would the *juventus academica* sink! It is clear that the nation does not want the education which the University offers. The causes of this depreciation of a University education are doubtless various. The extension of commerce, the

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opening of India, and the multiplied outlets for British talent and energy, while the Church as a profession offers neither a career to the ambitious nor an occupation to the vigorous, are the foremost among these causes, but by no means the most deeply seated. The inquiries we have been able to make among the classes to whom superior education is avowedly an object of desire, have revealed to us one feeling of suspicion and alarm widely spread among the more right-minded and judicious parents which operates to keep them from sending their sons to Oxford or Cambridge. They dread the habit of easy-going indolence and lounging self-indulgence which appear to be in most instances all that an average youth carries away with him after three years spent in one of those famous seats of learning. We may return to this subject again.

In the department of legislation, the event of the past term was the rejection of the EXAMINATION STATUTE on 21st April by Convocation. The object of the proposed statute was to remove some of the imperfections under which the existing system of studies laboured. That system was introduced ten years ago, and by it the new or modern subjects—history, jurisprudence, and various physical sciences, were restored to their place in the academic curriculum after an exile of nearly three centuries. So novel an experiment was, of course, but an experiment. It was foreseen at the time of its introduction that many details of the system would call for adjustment and reconsideration after its working had been put to the test of a few years' experience. The tutors and professors thought that that experience had been gained by 1863. They formed a voluntary association for the purpose of considering and discussing the amendments which appeared to be required; and, indeed, devoted a vast amount of time and labour to refitting the system of studies on those points where its practical working had halted hitherto. By their influence this measure was pushed through the Hebdomadal Council. It did not, however, pass through the hands of that somewhat reactionary body without losing more than one of its most practical provisions. However, such as it came from the Council, it did relieve the present system of studies and examinations of some of the more patent faults which had been overlooked in its construction in 1850. It was accordingly passed in *Congregation* by a majority of two to one. The defeated minority knew, however, by the experience of the Sanscrit election, that, though a minority among the resident tutors and professors, they commanded a majority among the clergy who compose *Convocation*, the general legislative assembly of Oxford. The leaders of this party spent the three weeks of the Easter vacation in electioneering. When the tutors returned to meet their classes on the 21st of April, they found that a defeat had been prepared for them in Convocation, and had the mortification to see their elaborate measure scattered to the winds by a body of voters who were very imperfectly acquainted with the intention and effect of the statute they were rejecting. The mischief done by this reckless legislation of the anti-education party in Convocation does not lie in the loss of the special provisions of the defeated bill:

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it lies in the discouragement given to the hard-working and energetic tutor by the knowledge that, do what he may, the affairs of the University are, in the last resort, in the hands of a political party which is determined to thwart him. The political reaction has reached the University, and the party which refused the first Sanscrit scholar in Europe a professorship, are now again, after a short interregnum, reinstated in full authority and influence in Oxford.

FRANCE.

Paris, June 20th.—In our last notice on education in France, we traced its progress from the middle of the 8th to the end of the 18th century. In doing so, none but the educational institutions founded by the French kings were more than alluded to, for the Sorbonne, although a private foundation, was always incorporated with the University. The pedantic and dogmatic tone kept up in these establishments, from the middle ages to the period of their dissolution, render the great mental activity of the eighteenth century a perplexing problem, so long as influences totally foreign to them are not taken into account. It will not, therefore, be amiss to state briefly in what those influences consisted, before proceeding to a review of the system of public instruction that was organized in the beginning of this century by Bonaparte, and subsequently modified by the governments of the elder Bourbons, Louis Philippe, and Louis Napoleon.

The Schools of the Jesuits and the short-lived School of the Port-Royalists, but more especially the first, took the lead of all the non-official educational establishments in France. They had the advantage over the others of not being paralysed by ancient traditions, and the still greater one of being of necessity forced to put forth all their power in supplanting each other in public favour, as "the eldest daughter of the French Monarchs." The Jesuits were called into existence to act as a conservative body. They were appointed to subdue the spirit of religious reform which sprung up in the sixteenth century, and no corporation was ever truer to its origin. But never was there a body which, in its endeavours by consummate prudence to accomplish its ends, did more to defeat them than the French Jesuits. To make head against the tide of innovation, they borrowed their adversaries' arms. By studiously teaching their pupils how to detect the real as well as the apparent weaknesses of their opponents, and by infusing into them a spirit of scientific research, the Jesuit fathers trained a generation destined to emancipate the human mind in France, and to give to the eighteenth century the surprising mental hardihood which distinguished it above every preceding one. They also taught their pupils that the object of education was to enable them to live, not merely in themselves or in the class-room, but in the world. The result was Molière, Voltaire, and the mundane, keen-witted, society of Versailles and the Paris *salons* which directed the opinions of continental Europe, while everything attempted by the French Government proved a failure and covered it with disgrace. The followers of Loyola not only dif-

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fused the benefits of their relatively superior system of instruction, by means of schools, but also by acting as private tutors in the households of the French nobility. The professional men retained an old affection for the University, and their sons were brought up pedants under its shadow. Routine pedantry and unyielding dogmatism continued to be the prevailing character of the young lawyers, doctors, and the divers members of the faculties, whilst the *noblesse* were becoming distinguished for mental suppleness and a thirst for innovation. It was only when Louis XVI. went to apply their theories, by levying the land-tax, that they showed themselves conservatives.

It is worthy of remark that the teachings of the Jesuits in France have been, as a general rule, productive of a tendency to overturn. Molière overthrew the ancient pharmacopœia—the bleedings, the blisterings, and the violent physickings of the doctors of his day. Voltaire gave a blow almost as deadly to Roman Catholicism, as did Luther, and shook the doctrine of right divine to its foundations. The tutor of Montesquieu was a Jesuit; as were also the tutors of the Duc de St. Simon, the author of the Mémoires, and his nephew St. Simon the Socialist, who, when a young man, volunteered to serve in America under Lafayette. Port-Royal produced an entirely different effect. The lay pupils of the Jesuits left college confirmed sceptics. In matters of religion, their inquiries led to utter unbelief, and in everything else to doubt. The others traced everything to a first cause. They often deserved the title of "sublime madmen," and scorned everything that appeared to them to partake of the character of a subterfuge. If occasionally they lapsed into wrong-doing, they were more degraded by it than their enemies, simply because each of them had a conscience to violate.

The young noblemen brought up by the Jesuits, were by no means deficient in an intellectual perception of what was morally wrong or morally elevated, but their moral instincts were deadened by the Fathers. However, their adroitness, suppleness, and common sense enabled them to accomplish a great although a subversive mission, by enabling them to evade the Draconian Code, which regulated French literature previous to the Revolution. They had no ideal, and were therefore devoid of that enthusiasm which led the Port-Royalists and their successors into courting and glorying in martyrdom. Voltaire was as well satisfied to be patronized by Madame de Pompadour as by Frederick the Great. The mission accomplished by those who sprung from Port-Royal was to stimulate by their controversial zeal the mental activity of their age. The trace they left on French literature endures in the works of the younger Arnaulds, Racine, Pascal, Jean Baptiste Rousseau, and Sacy le Maître. There were, besides the institutions already mentioned, the colleges of Harcourt, the Oratoire, Navarre, and Plessis. To these may be added the provincial colleges, of which Dijon was made famous by the elder Carnot.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that official instruction in France was, during the ancient monarchy, greatly inferior to private; but it should not be thence inferred that boys belonging to the middle classes are not better instructed in the Lyceums now established by the State

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than they could if there were no secondary schools except private ones. The reverse is the case. It must, however, be acknowledged, even by the partisans of State education, that in France it has always been attended with one serious disadvantage. Formerly, as to-day, the University was of necessity to a great degree obliged to harmonize with the political institutions of the country. So long as the Government was an illiberal one, it was, as it now is, often obliged to silence its best men, and as it must in all probability for some time longer continue to do. An administration such as the actual one, not unnaturally regards the learned bodies as Saturn did his children; and if not exactly compelled in self-defence to devour them, does all that lies in it to limit their influence.

The French Revolution destroyed in France not only the University, but every other educational establishment whatever, secular or religious. The only primary schools in existence before 1798 were those erected by the Christian Brothers, the Ursulines, and the Order of St. Vincent de Paul. Humble and useful as they then were, they did not escape the storm which brought war to the castle and peace to the cabin. None of them were allowed to survive it. They only rose to life during the Restoration. But the world, in the meantime, had so greatly altered, that their period of usefulness had passed away. During their submersion, the State had undertaken to supply their vacant place. The National Convention first endeavoured to do so by proclaiming instruction free to all good patriots qualified to teach; for the law of '93, dispensing with this important condition, did not remain in force for more than a year and a half. The programme traced out by the Convention was, as Matthew Arnold, in his excellent work on *Popular Instruction in France*, justly observes, rather ambitious. But it was logical enough, if the hypothesis on which the Republic, as its architects supposed, was founded—of equality of wealth and ability—was a matter of fact. The impossibility of carrying out their educational plans proved to the good patriots who framed them that their belief was a delusion. Till France should be ripe for the establishment of Lycées and communal schools, her Republican rulers were obliged to satisfy their desire of rendering instruction, in every sense of the word, universal, by recognising its necessity, and by founding the *Ecole Polytechnique* and the *Ecole Normale*, the last of which secures to all the secondary schools in France a staff of what may, without exaggeration, be called the most efficient teachers in the world.

The first care of Bonaparte, when rescuing modern France from chaos, was to create a new system of public instruction in harmony with the political institutions of the Empire. It was, therefore, a great hierarchy, highly centralized, with all its forces converging in the chief of the nation. But, like that of the Jesuits, the educational organization of Bonaparte will, there is every reason to believe, accomplish the reverse of what its creator anticipated. It will render France one day more independent of government, and more capable of participating in European life, than a less centralized system could have done in the presence of so many incongruous elements. If it

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does not develop the individual, as did feudalism and the home education of the French nobility, it is in a fair way to knead the French people into a compact mass, thinking on questions of public interest as one man, and capable of acting simultaneously on a given signal, as would the most highly-disciplined army. Had the Government of July and the Second Empire simply developed Bonaparte's system, instead of curtailing it; had they satisfied themselves with building the communal schools which he had intended to build; had they increased the wretched salaries of the teachers, and supplemented the organization already adopted, by creating, on a similar plan, a national system of primary for both sexes, and of secondary instruction for girls,—the probability is, that the departments, at the late elections, would have voted as did the nine circumscriptions of Paris. Under it as it originally worked, the clergy had less influence than they have now; and innumerable disgusting trials in the departments, within the course of the last two years, prove that the less they have, the better for the morals of the nation. The professors then, although not very free, were nevertheless freer than they are to-day, it being now possible for the Government to suspend or dismiss any of them without assigning a cause; which, after the ordeal they are obliged to pass in the University and Ecole Normale, is a grievous hardship. Nevertheless, enough remains of the marvellous creation of the first Napoleon to enable it to instruct efficiently the youth of the French middle-classes, and indirectly serve as an instrument to resist the centralized despotism which attempts vainly to convert it into a political propaganda. In most of what concerns the working of secondary public schools, it is the same as it was fifty years ago. But otherwise it is greatly shorn of its ancient strength, which the July Government had done well to develop. In 1808, it organized for the purpose of imparting three classes of instruction, all bearing the same stamp, although appropriated to the needs of as many different classes of society, and so disposed that each would serve as a preparation for the one above it. The benefits thus secured to studious boys belonging to the lowest class of the people, may easily be imagined. All establishments of the same order were formed on the same model, and submitted to the same regulations, which left a wide margin for home education and special instruction, and were at the same time logical, extremely practical, and minutely French. There was a hierarchy which still remains, uniting the divers establishments and functionaries; administrative agents, named rectors, sufficiently numerous to oversee all the teachers; a council, aided by general inspectors, who received reports from simple inspectors, who were in turn possessed of all the knowledge and authority necessary to maintain strict discipline over those placed beneath them, but without the power to act the petty tyrant. At the head of all there was a chief, who held his authority directly from the Emperor, and who would have enjoyed all the power that a pontiff exercises over the church committed to his keeping, were it not that the authority of the Emperor was unfortunately anything but nominal; in consequence of which the spy was as often to be met with in the lecture-hall of the college as in the newspaper office or the café.

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Such was the University created by Bonaparte. In order that none should escape its influence, the few clerical or private schools that were allowed to exist, were obliged to adopt the course of instruction followed in the Lyceums; to open their doors to the government inspectors; in certain cases to send their pupils to the *Cours* ordained by the faculties; and in all cases to send them up for examination to the University or some of its branches.

This unified instruction was given by a body of professors who were not attached permanently to any district, but who were all, as they still are, at the disposal of the rectors and council of instruction. It was, undoubtedly, calculated to effect a more complete unity than the decree of the Constituent Assembly, which broke up the provinces of ancient into the departments of modern France. It may be said that if Richelieu created the administrative unity of his country, Louis Quatorze its religious unity, its intellectual unity was created by Bonaparte.

The Restoration was no sooner effected than loud clamours were raised against the monopoly of instruction enjoyed by the University. It was complained that it turned out pupils filled with good precepts, but ready to receive passively whatever ideas any tool of the Government should choose to impose upon them, and that their minds were, so to speak, formed by machinery. The Revolution of 1830, and the literature of Louis Philippe's reign, sufficiently prove the groundlessness of these complaints, which, if there was any reason for them, should have been directed against indolent fathers and mothers, instead of against schools and teachers, who it was never intended should supply their places.

The clergy were naturally the first to agitate, because the University, such as Bonaparte had intended to make it work, disputed their spiritual authority, from the son of the *sans culotte* to the son of the nobleman; and because, being a powerful organization, it alone could make head against them. They began by making their agitation assume the aspect of a quarrel between Catholicism and the learned bodies. But they lost ground, although the Court took the part of the clerical faction, and France adhered to the ceremonies of the Church while she mocked her dogmas. They then spread, with some trouble and no effect, false accusations of such immoralities as the Christian Brothers are frequently convicted of at the Assize Courts of the western departments. Finally, they hoisted the colours of liberty and preached against monopoly, which, strange to say, the men and youths with machine-made minds re-echoed, and so loudly, that primary and secondary instruction was made free, to the great profit of the clergy and the Christian Brothers, into whose hands the present Emperor virtually gave the education of the masses.

What the Christian Brothers may be worth as teachers will be best judged from the fact that not unfrequently, when standing their trials before the criminal tribunals, their *avocats* plead for extenuating circumstances in their favour, on the grounds that they are country clowns, whose moral perceptions are no less blunted than their intellectual ones. A little more than two years ago, the person who was charged with the defence of one asked the jury what could be

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expected from such a step-son of nature, such a *crétin* as his client. It must, however, in justice to the Christian Brothers, be said that their pupils, if ignorant and often debased, excel in caligraphy, and draw and spell better than even the boys who are educated in the superior schools.

The Legislation of 1850 created departmental rectors, whose situation subjects them to the influence of the prefects and bishops. The present Emperor did much in effecting this change. He also did much to impede the progress through the Assembly of a "project of law," rendering it obligatory for children to pass examinations during their tenth and fourteenth years. M. Jules Simon, who was in favour of obligatory instruction, was the president of the Commission of Education appointed to report on this measure, and Louis Napoleon—then a deputy—was a very active member of it—so active, that he managed to personify the apple of discord, and finally place two clerical colleagues at the head of the majority, for which he received the felicitations and support of some bishops.

When elected President of the Republic, with the view of obtaining their future support, he made still further concessions to the clergy. He ostensibly did so to establish more firmly what has been called the principle of "free instruction," which has always in France been synonymous with clerical teaching, and does not at all imply unrestricted freedom for every one competent to open a school to do so. Twelve years ago there were perhaps as many private schools shut up as there were authors exiled, and none but those who have made the experiment know how many difficulties the authorities throw in the way of any one opening a school whose politics they have reason to believe are not official.

In 1854 the Provincial Academies were greatly privileged, and an apparent increase of authority and personal importance given to the rectors. But the judicial power which they had hitherto enjoyed was, for political reasons, transferred to the prefects, and the departmental councils at which they preside.

Notwithstanding all the alterations effected since 1815, there has been but one radical change directly effected in Bonaparte's system, and that consists in what is called "the suppression of university monopoly," for all in it that concerned primary instruction was not put in practice during the Empire. It became a dead letter during the Restoration, and was, we think, unwisely set aside by M. Guizot for another system in no way connected with the system of secondary instruction then, as now, in force.

The functionaries of the University are to-day more governed by the Government than they were under Bonaparte; and if they do not govern private schools they oversee them, while the pupils of all the first-rate private institutions daily follow the course of the Lyceums and University with the utmost regularity, and therefore are under the necessity of adopting their educational programme. On the whole, therefore, by all the changes effected by the different governments which ruled France during the last half century, there have been no other results obtained than, at bottom, a great decrease of power on the

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side of the University; a corresponding gain on the side of the Government, and the destruction of that unity of instruction projected by Bonaparte, which eventually would have done much to fuse Paris with the Provinces. The working with the middle classes, as the unity of secondary instruction in the Lycées, tends to fuse into one the different elements of society included between the *bourgeoisie* and the aristocracy of wealth or of the official world, for no other can be said to exist in France such as she is now constituted.

GERMANY.

We borrow from the German periodicals the following notice of the new SCHOOL ORDINANCES in RUSSIA:—

The gigantic scheme of reform now being inaugurated in Russia, includes, it seems, education as one of its items, though, in respect of primary education, it is not so strictly a reform as a new creation we are witnessing. There were *no* elementary schools in the empire, except on the Crown domains, and these schools were not schools for teaching the rudiments of knowledge, but institutions for training for special services and government posts. This void is to be supplied now; Russia is to be assimilated to the rest of Europe in this as well as in other respects; and by a stroke of the pen the empire is to be covered with a system of elementary and higher schools. The Ordinance, which has been in preparation ever since 1856, was published in German some time ago. It has been examined by the German schoolmasters, and has, on the whole, obtained their approbation. It is to apply to the whole empire, Poland, Dorpat, and the Caucasus, excepted. This enormous area is to be supplied with national schools, in the ratio of one school for every thousand adult males of population—the most gigantic teaching machine that was ever erected. Where the population is too sparse for the erection of a school, then a travelling teacher is to be employed, on the plan not unusual in Prussia. Attendance is not made compulsory, but various inducements are held out to secure a voluntary attendance. The education is to be gratis to all the children of the district; a certificate of attendance is to be requisite for admission to any civic office; the passport fee is to be doubled for those who cannot produce such certificate; and in agricultural districts it will not be attempted to keep the school open during the summer months. The principle of self-government is so far to be applied that the cost of the elementary schools is to be borne by the communes, the central Government supplementing their resources only in cases of attested poverty. The salaries are fixed at what is considered a liberal figure, 250 silver rubles in towns, 150 in the country, with house, firing, and other perquisites. After twenty-five years' service a teacher retires on full pay. This army of teachers is to be raised in an adequate number of Training institutes. Those candidates who can pay are to pay for their training; those who cannot will be trained at the cost of the Government. Above the National School is to be a system of Middle Schools (*Progymnasien*), in which German and French are to be taught, but not Latin or Greek. In these Middle Schools, children

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of all ranks will be brought up together till thirteen years of age. After this age, two classes of schools will be open to receive them—a Grammar-School with a classical system, and a Real-School with a curriculum much the same as a German *Real-Schule.*

The whole scheme, in fact, is founded on a careful comparison of the most approved ordinances of the German States. Adaptations to Russian circumstances have, of course, been made. We do not know enough of the ordinance yet to pronounce it impracticable. It has, indeed, an air of a cabinet rescript in its preambles and reasonings, which announce general principles. Very unlike the 'Whereas' of an Act of Parliament, *e.g.*, the Ordinance opens with the declaration—

"The enlightenment of the people is the main prop of the State, the chief source of its welfare; therefore every individual citizen, without distinction of rank or sex, ought to have this enlightenment placed within their reach."

If we may trust the reports made by the provincial governments, there is a simultaneous movement for carrying into immediate execution the main provisions of the Ukase. In one paper we find that in sixteen governments (or departments) 3374 new schools have been opened since the promulgation of the Emancipation Ukase. In Podolia alone more than 1000 schools have sprung up. Another statement carries the whole number of new schools opened to 7000.

The annual attempt to extort from an adverse Government the much-desired GENERAL ORGANIZATION of EDUCATION on a legal basis, was made, in the Chamber of Deputies at Berlin, under more unfavourable circumstances than ever. The vote took place on the 24th of last March, not in time to be announced in our last number. The Committee of Education handed in to the House their report, which, according to the forms of the Chamber, concluded with a resolution. The resolution was as follows:—

"The House considers the publication of a general law of education as provided in Art. 26 of the Charter, to be every year more and more imperatively required; and as the basis of such an organic law, they desire to see the following principles laid down."

Then follow twenty-four propositions, every one of them maturely considered—indeed, the fruit of many years' discussion and experience—which embody the principles of popular education as understood by the whole *Fortschritts-partei*, not only in Prussia, but throughout Protestant Germany. The resolution was passed by a large majority. In the debate which preceded the vote, the Minister of Ecclesiastical Affairs stated that it was the intention of Government to lay before the House an Organic Law of Education, but that the general state of political affairs in Germany rendered the measure impossible at the present moment.

Since then, the Chamber has been ignominiously dismissed. When it meets again—should it ever meet again—it will have hot work in hand. Alleviation of the schoolmasters' grievances, by way of application to the Prussian Parliament, may be considered then as indefinitely postponed.

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By the death of MADAME BAUR, the widow of John Daniel Baur, Kt., a wealthy merchant of Altona, a magnificent legacy has fallen in to the town of Altona, of which Baur was formerly burgomaster. Altona, it may be mentioned, though a free port, is not a free city. It is in the Danish Duchy of Holstein; and the still and silent aspect of its streets presents a striking contrast to the commercial bustle of Hamburg. This bequest, which may amount to about a million of marks current (£60,000), is to be laid out in infant schools for the use of the towns of Altona and Oltensen. The State already provides schools for children above seven years old. The Baur estate will now provide schools, or rather nurseries, where working parents may deposit their infant children during the hours of daily labour. These *Warteschulen* are found by experience to be an indispensable supplement to the elementary schools, and to be the most practical object to which private benevolence can direct its efforts. As the Government schools do all that is requisite for the children between seven and fourteen, private benevolence must find its scope before and after, in the *Warteschule*, and the *Fortbildungs-anstalt*. These Altona schools are each to hold 200 infants,—too large a number. We agree on this point with M. Heinrich Hoffman, who read an account of the *Kindergarten* at the London meeting of the Social Science Association. It is to be regretted that the limits of the volume of Transactions for 1862 prevented M. Hoffman's paper from being given in detail.

A report has been circulating through the German papers that the Austrian Government had again forbidden its subjects to send their sons to study in any but Austrian (*i.e.*, Catholic) Universities. The report appears now to be traced to a hustings speech of some liberal candidate at Nürnberg. Had the rumour been true, it would have been a lamentable step backwards. In Count Leo Thun's reform of Austrian universities in 1850, this freedom had been expressly guaranteed, and the terms so kept at a foreign university were allowed to count towards the student's academical *cursus*. We are now assured, in a semi-official paragraph of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, that the report is entirely destitute of foundation. No change has been made in the regulations of the Austrian universities at all interfering with the free choice of university on the part of the student.

A Bill, or *projet de loi*, for an Organic Law of Education, laid before the Gotha Chamber as far back as March last, is said to be the most wisely liberal educational system that has yet been enacted in any German state. We have not yet seen the bill, nor do we know the fate of the measure. Should this page meet the eye of any of our friends in the Duchy of SAXE-COBURG, we shall be greatly obliged for any information on the subject, which may be addressed to our Publisher.

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THE MUSEUM.

OCTOBER 1863.

I.—REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, 1862-63.

The Blue Book for 1861-62 contained Reports on Elementary Schools from *twenty-seven* Inspectors; that for 1862-63 contains similar Reports from only *twenty-four* Inspectors. There are in reality *four* Inspectors whose Reports are printed in the former volume and not in the latter. On behalf of *one* of these gentlemen, however, Mr. Bowstead, excuse is made for the non-appearance of his Report in the new Blue Book, "on the ground of illness." On behalf of the other *three* gentlemen, Messrs. G. R. Moncreiff, H. Longueville Jones, and Matthew Arnold, no such apology is given; so that we must infer that "sick-leave" at least has nothing to do with the absence of their Reports. We should add, to reconcile the absence of *four* Reports with the final deficiency of only *three*, that a Report this year appears from the Rev. W. Warburton, from whom none appeared last year. So much appears from a comparison of the two Blue Books; but we have reason to believe that two other Reports have been omitted or suppressed in the same way as the three mentioned above.

The effect of this deficiency is to leave the Church of England schools in the four northern counties of England, and in the whole of Wales, and the Nonconformist schools in the seven south-eastern counties of England—that is, the schools of one kind or another in twenty-three counties—wholly unnoticed in the Annual Report. To estimate the loss aright, it should be added that one of these counties is the metropolitan county, which contains upwards of fifty Dissenting schools; and that the total number of schools thus left unrepresented in the Report is, at the lowest computation, about *eight hundred.* Why, then, this large deficiency? On looking into last year's Report, we find Mr. Moncreiff commenting upon the "reaction in favour of old-fashioned ideas," in a way not likely to be very acceptable to the framers of the Revised Code; and we should by no means be sur-

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prised to learn that a continuance of the same strain, on the part of Mr. Moncreiff, if not on that of his silenced colleagues, had been the ground of offence for which the office has prescribed gagging as the proper award.

However this may be, the debate in the House of Commons in June leaves us in no doubt, as we showed in last number, as to the true reason of the omission. Mr. Lowe insists on what he calls "loyalty to the department;" meaning thereby that the Inspectors are not to make any statements which contradict the prevailing policy of "the office," and are to record no conviction, no matter how conscientiously held, which is at variance with the notions or crotchets of "the heads of their department." We pointed out the absurdity of the department thus holding itself free to select or winnow the evidence by which its own conduct is to be tried. This, coupled with the startling fact, vouched for by Mr. Walter, that several Reports had been "garbled by the Education Office," really increases the mistrust with which the Annual Report must be received to a very serious extent. Here is an important branch of the Government, which spends between *seven and eight hundred thousand pounds* per annum, and about the policy and whole conduct of which there are grave differences of opinion both within Parliament and out of it. More than *forty-four thousand pounds* are spent annually by the country on the services of educated gentlemen, whose duty it is to examine and report upon the working of the whole scheme. It is to the Reports of these gentlemen that the Privy-Council and the Houses of Parliament must look for information to guide them in their legislative measures. Yet some of these Reports are withheld altogether, not because they are inconsistent with fact, but only because they are inconsistent with certain theories. And if the bare suspicion get abroad that any of the Reports which are published have been tampered with to any extent, in their passage through the Council Office, it will go far to deprive the Annual Report of any value it may possess as a history of educational progress. To set this matter at rest, we wonder that the House of Commons does not call for the production of the suppressed Reports, as it would in the case of the Foreign or the Colonial Office. If Mr. Lowe is satisfied of the goodness of his cause, he can have no objection to such a step.

There are becoming apparent in the Report other features which tend to increase its manufactured character. We are occasionally finding important reforms foreshadowed in Inspectors' Reports; suggestions put forth as feelers there before being incorporated in Council Minutes; and lines of policy defended by elaborate arguments. Now it is right that Inspectors should make suggestions, and that their suggestions should be attended to; but they cannot be called suggestions, and they have none of their value, when the proposals are the result of connivance between the "heads of the department" and some of their more "loyal" officials. The Report thus becomes less a record from which the proceedings of the past may be ascertained, than an oracle—like an imperial pamphlet—which we eagerly consult as to the next move on the educational chess-board.

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All this is much to be regretted; for it essentially alters the character, and impairs the value, of one of the most useful of our Parliamentary annuals. There is, however, one portion of the volume which cannot so readily suffer in this way: we refer to its statistical tables. Most of the points, debateable or debated in connexion with the education question, come to bear in one way or other on the figures in these tables; and if we have these, as we believe we have, honestly laid before us from year to year, we may draw the inferences for ourselves.

Even here, however, it is possible to interpose difficulties between the public and special facts which it may be important for them to know. We can foresee that such a case may very soon arise. In the course of a year or two, when the Revised Code has come into full operation, and has had a short trial, we shall be anxious, not merely to take its results "in the slump," but to ascertain how individual schools are affected by its working. The natural place to which to turn for the information requisite to enable us to compare the amount of aid granted to a particular school under the old Code with that granted to it under the new, is the list of "schools aided by Parliamentary grants," forming some 200 pages (more than a third) of the volume. And indeed it is to be found there, but in a form so inconvenient as to be all but useless. Opposite the name of each school is given the *total* amount received by it in annual grants "between the years 1833 and 1862;" so that in order to ascertain the grant for any one year, we must find the difference between the total grants in that year and in the preceding one. And no doubt the office has it in reserve, as a full and final reply to this complaint, that by this simple process of subtraction the desired information may be obtained. Now, that the office should have been at the pains to make the *addition* which entails upon us the necessity of the *subtraction*, is the very complaint we are making. They are at the trouble of placing a very considerable obstacle between us and the precise figures we may wish to ascertain,—an obstacle which simply amounts to this, that the required information is in every case divided between two Blue Books instead of being contained, as it might easily be, in one.

We shall most conveniently lay the results of the statistical information contained in the Blue Book before our readers, in a tabular form; and, for the sake of comparison, we place alongside of them the corresponding figures for the preceding year.

	1861.	1862.
Total Expenditure,	£813,441 16 0	£774,743 2 3
In England and Wales,	645,565 19 9	610,663 3 5
In Scotland,	100,689 19 10	97,992 14 1
Inspection,	44,143 2 10	44,327 3 6
Administration,	19,168 3 0	18,823 11 1
School-houses built,	206	159
In England and Wales,	188	138
In Scotland,	18	21
Children for whom accommodation created,	47,103	38,615
In England and Wales,	43,287	35,431
In Scotland,	3,816	3,184

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	1861.	1862.
Certificated teachers,	8,698	9,115
Assistant teachers,	381	449
Probationary teachers,	491	518
Pupil-teachers under apprenticeship,	16,277	15,752
Centesimal proportion of scholars on whom grants were allowed to scholars in average attendance,	42·75	44·57
Inspectors,	60	60
Schools or departments inspected,	10,900	10,918
Increase on previous year,	497	18
Pupils present at examination,	1,028,690	1,057,426
Increase on previous year,	65,758	28,736
Pupils in average attendance,	919,935	954,849
Decrease on previous year,	42,997	.....
Increase on previous year,	.....	34,914
Pupils on whom grant was paid for the first time,	54,220	26,108
Percentage of pupils between 7 and 8 (maximum),	12·63	12·66
,, ,, over 14 (minimum),	2·27	2·17
,, ,, less than one year in attendance (maximum),	39·9	39·01
,, ,, 5 years and over in attendance (minimum),	5·84	6·07
Total Income of schools inspected,	£746,126 18 7	£844,642 6 10
Total Expenditure do. do.,	828,698 7 4	870,386 4 5
Average Income per scholar,	0 17 5½	0 19 0
Average Expenditure do.,	0 19 4½	0 19 7
In England.		
Highest Av. Inc. (Dissenting schools in Oxford, Sussex, etc.),	1 3 3	1 5 2¼
Lowest Av. Inc. (R. C. schools in Durham, etc.),	0 9 2¼	.....
,, ,, (R. C. schools in Chester, Cumberland, etc.),	.....	0 10 10¼
Highest Av. Exp. (Ch. schools in Middlesex),	1 4 0¼	1 4 10½
Lowest Av. Exp. (R. C. schools in Durham, etc.),	0 11 4¾	.....
,, ,, (R. C. schools in Chester, etc.),	.....	0 12 5½
In Scotland.		
Highest Av. Inc. (Ch. schools in Aberdeen, etc.),	1 1 8¾	1 2 2¾
Lowest Av. Inc. (F. C. schools in Aberdeen, etc.),	0 14 10¼	.....
,, ,, (Episcopal schools),	.....	0 14 7¼
Highest Av. Exp. (Ch. schools in Aberdeen, etc.),	1 2 0¼	1 2 3¼
Lowest Av. Exp. (F. C. schools in Aberdeen, etc.),	0 15 1½	.....
,, ,, (Episcopal schools),	.....	0 15 0½
Av. Emoluments of Certificated masters,	94 10 3	94 18 7
,, ,, Uncertificated do.,	58 16 10	62 9 7

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	1861.	1862.
Av. Emoluments of Certificated mistresses,	£62 15 5	£62 13 7
,, ,, Uncertificated mistresses,	34 18 9	37 17 0
,, ,, Cert. infants' do.,	59 7 9	60 5 3
,, ,, Uncert. do. do.,	33 4 2	34 4 3
Grants to Training Colleges, . .	101,865 13 1	104,700 11 8
Training Colleges visited, . . .	39	40
Resident students (December), . .	2,869	2,972
	(1862.)	(1863.)
,, ,, (March), . . .	3,047	3,252
New Admissions, ...	1,841	1,921

The most melancholy fact which this table attests is, that by far the largest percentage of the children at school in these countries (more than a third of the whole number) remain at school for less than one year of their lives. While this continues so, there cannot be much real progress. Let us hope that the slight diminution in this number, apparent in the past year, indicates a turn in the tide. It is satisfactory to notice a corresponding improvement also at the other end of the scale: the number of those who continue for five years and upwards has slightly increased.

It will be observed that the average income per scholar, of the schools aided by grants, has increased by 1s. 7½d., while the average expenditure has risen by only 2½d. Income and expenditure are thus more nearly equalized than they have yet been in the history of our national schools.

It is satisfactory to notice a continued increase (slight though it be) in the average income of certificated schoolmasters. The average for certificated schoolmistresses, however, has fallen by 1s. 10d. It will also tend to perplex one aspect of current controversy to find that, in the case both of masters and of mistresses, the rate of increase of the uncertificated very considerably exceeds that of those holding certificates. One will hesitate to accept the statement, in some quarters so strongly insisted on, that the demand for uncertificated teachers is falling, when we see their incomes so decidedly on the increase. It must be added, in fairness, that the excessive supply of certificated teachers necessarily tends to retard the rate of increase of salary in their case.

It is interesting, in going through the nine-and-thirty Inspectors' Reports contained in this volume, to notice how they reflect not only the mental calibre of each, and his aptitude for the work, but also peculiarities of taste and fancy. A few of these gentlemen treat us to personal details, which might be interesting but for a lingering suspicion that they are a little ostentatiously advanced. One tells us that in the year he has travelled 3767 miles. Two others give tables showing how every day in the year was employed. These crotchets,—useful enough when kept in their proper place,—which the teaching mind is perhaps too prone to indulge, crop out here and there in the Inspectors' Reports. Now it is a peculiar method of teaching spelling, or geography, or grammar; now it is a device for hanging caps out of sight, or for cleaning slates without employing the natural medium for that process; now

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t is a particular kind of copy-book; now a particular ruling for the registers; now a particular kind of slate; now diamond-shaped panes and obscured glass; now the darning of stockings; now the blackboard; now the magic-lantern. It is a more serious blemish in a volume of educational reports, which in fact bristle with complaints of the deficiencies of our schools in grammar, composition, and punctuation, to find so many specimens of faulty punctuation, weak composition, and even questionable grammar. The credit of the bad punctuation, and the occasional misspellings, must be given, we suppose, to the Queen's Printers, and to the Council Office. The style and grammar, however, are likely to be the Inspectors' own; though it is surprising that Mr. Lowe and Mr. Lingen should have allowed anything so condemnatory of their department, and so disrespectful to the Queen's English, as some sentences in this volume are, to be presented to Her Majesty. For example, one Inspector says of a certain gentleman, that "his method of instruction rather partakes of that of a lecturer *instead of* a teacher." Another writes a sentence in which he really, though unintentionally, makes himself find fault with the number of pupil-teachers who die. A third, on the other hand, says that it is a great object "to make children *do for themselves* as much as possible!" The same gentleman tells us, that "several schools in this class too have only been established for a short time, or only during the present year *been* placed under certificated teachers, and mostly *of* teachers who, having only lately left the training college, necessarily want experience in the work." And in the last paragraph of his Report we find this exquisite logical and grammatical jumble: "It seems to me matter also of some serious consideration, the few pupil-teachers who have completed their time who propose to enter training colleges, not a third part intended thus to complete their course." We would prescribe for this gentleman a partial course of analysis, before he undertakes his next report; and it may be suggested to him and some of his colleagues that they would probably see better to take the beams out of the pupil-teachers' eyes, if the motes were out of their own.

We are far, however, from wishing it to be implied that this looseness is a general characteristic of these Reports. They are for the most part intelligent and workmanlike statements; some of them, such as those of Messrs. Laurie, Middleton, and Wilson, are written with great spirit and unmistakable power; and others, for example those of Messrs. Norris, Blandford, Alderson, and Cook, are valuable contributions to the literature of education.

Many of the Inspectors, regarding the past year as one of transition, have made their Reports the occasion of a retrospective glance at the progress of elementary education. They are all but unanimous in testifying that the general progress during the past fifteen years has been decided, if not either extensive or rapid. Mr. Blandford, after a careful review of the operation of the Minutes of 1846, states that, "if it were possible to put side by side schools as they were eighteen years ago, and as they are at the present time, the progress which has been made would need no commentary." According to Mr. Norris,

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the proportion of children who *were* attending Church of England schools in his district, compared with those who *should be* at school, has risen from 15 per cent. in 1854 to 32 per cent. in 1862; "and if we add the children of Nonconformist schools, we shall find that nearly 40 per cent. of all who might be at school are now enjoying the benefit of your Lordships' measures. Of the remaining 60 per cent., some are at unaided schools, some at private schools, some not attending any school." Mr. Warburton characterises the progress as "decided;" Mr. Brodie as "sensible, if not decided;" Mr. Middleton says, "without hesitation," that the proofs of progress during the last eleven years "are many; gratifying as to the past, and hopeful as to the future."

On the other hand, the complaints to be set over against this unequivocal testimony to "general progress" are few, and by no means unqualified. Mr. Fussell says:—"For the first time in the course of my acquaintance with the district, a period of now more than ten years, I observe a falling off in this respect." Mr. Stokes finds that "the equipment of many schools remains imperfect." If we add to this the reservation implied in the "upon the whole" of one or two others (for instance, Mr. Stewart and Mr. Alderson), we shall have nearly exhausted the amount of disappointment expressed in the volume. It must, of course, be remembered that what we have said and quoted refers only to "general" progress. A considerable amount of dissatisfaction with the state of particular subjects remains behind; but of this presently.

Doubtless, the features most eagerly seized upon in the Inspectors' Reports this year will be points involved in recent legislation, or in the still more recent discussions in Parliament. Most of the Inspectors are silent as to disputed points—a "silence" which does not, we presume, in every case, according to Mr. Lowe's doctrine, signify dissent; but most of them at the same time contribute something towards the questions in dispute. Mr. Blandford "can see reasons in the facts around him" for the changes introduced by the Revised Code. In glancing at the probable working of that Code, Mr. Brookfield adverts to "the unsettled state of many schools expecting its application." Mr. Laurie, on the other hand, assures us that "the apprehensions created in the early part of last year by the revision of the Code, have now to a large extent subsided;" and Dr. Morell testifies that "a general preparation for this has already become manifest, with few exceptions, amongst all classes of inspected schools."

This is perfectly natural. The fiat has gone forth. The schoolmasters are to be paid, according to the new Minutes. To meet the requirements of the new Minutes, therefore, they must make the utmost effort. It is not less natural to find that school managers should be so puzzled by their new powers and responsibilities as to be seized with timidity—in some cases to have allowed their zeal to collapse into positive indifference. While schoolmasters are busily working up the three R's, managers are cautiously feeling their way towards safer attainments in the more subtle triplet, *£ s. d.* Mr. Tinling finds that

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the latter have "in many instances refrained from any increased outlay upon their schools, so as to secure themselves in time against any extent of loss which a change in the system of Government payments might eventually bring upon them." What is more serious is, that "these fears and doubts on the part of school managers have, in certain cases, tended to lessen the efficiency of the schools, and to make the present crisis one of the greatest difficulty." Mr. Norris refers to the unwillingness of managers to undertake more pecuniary risk than is necessary under the new Code. And Mr. Laurie says that "in the majority of schools the managers have not actively bestirred themselves to see that the work required by the new regulations is being carried out," while he indignantly upbraids them with devoting "much time to calculating what they might possibly lose by the Revised Code."

Indifference on the part of managers will not increase the confidence of teachers. Accordingly we find the alleged tendency to "ratting" on the part of the schoolmasters, referred to in our last number, confirmed by more than one of the Reports before us. Mr. Fussell states that, as a result of many managers "re-organizing their schools in a way that threatens to impair their efficiency, . . . some of the best teachers are seeking other employment." Mr. Brookfield really ascribes the same effect to the same cause when he says, "of teachers I have found a few, *but no considerable number*, abandoning their profession for employments which, under existing circumstances, appeared to them to hold out a less uncertain prospect of competency and comfort." So partial, and in the circumstances so hazardous, a panic cannot but be temporary. After the first shock, the vessel must right itself again; and while we deeply sympathize with the teachers in the anxiety and uncertainty which a transition period involves, we should regret, for their own sakes, a course which could hardly fail, in the majority of cases, to produce greater hardship than that they are fleeing from.

It is more excusable, and equally natural, that the effect of the present crisis should be to make the pupil-teachers take fright. Men embarked in a profession are not so easily moved, especially if their hearts be in it, as youths who are only at its threshold. We are prepared, therefore, not merely for the diminution in the number of pupil-teachers which the above table exhibits, but for the emphatic statements on this head made by a majority of the Inspectors. "Many of the pupil-teachers," says Mr. Tinling, "have shown themselves unwilling to complete their apprenticeship, whilst, for the first time since the Minutes of 1846 have been in operation, it has become a matter of very great difficulty to obtain fit candidates for apprenticeship." Mr. Mitchell tells us that, in three of his centres, there were, in 1861, fifty-four candidates to supply twenty six places, while in 1862 there were only thirty-five candidates to supply thirty-two places. Mr. Brookfield says, "in round numbers, the decrease has been not quite *one-third*." Mr. Norris finds that "the falling off is in boys," and adds that, "viewed in connexion with the interests of existing teachers,

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it is by no means to be regretted." Mr. Lynch, on the other hand, has *not* found "that the recent alterations in the position of teachers have had any influence in my district in deterring candidates for apprenticeship from offering themselves for examination." Mr. Lynch's experience in this particular, however, is supported by that of no other Inspector. The evidence of the falling off is very general—all but unanimous. By some it is attributed to the chariness of managers to incur heavy responsibilities; by some to the unwillingness of parents to apprentice their children in the midst of the prevailing uncertainty. It cannot be ascribed, "except in apprehension," to the new Training College Minute; but certainly it is the first indication of a check to that excessive supply of trained teachers which that Minute is designed to curtail.

This excessive supply of teachers is another point amply borne witness to in these Reports. Under the former Minutes it was the direct interest of managers to have as many pupil-teachers as could possibly be allowed. The supply of students in training, and ultimately of trained teachers, thus came to be regulated, not by the demand for them, but by the cupidity of managers, and the necessities of the existing schoolmasters. The inevitable consequence of this excess of supply over demand was to reduce the emoluments of certificated schoolmasters. Mr. Norris rightly points out that this depreciation of income is likely to be checked by the operation of the Revised Code on pupil-teachers, as "it is now the direct pecuniary interest of the school manager to have as few pupil-teachers as is consistent with efficiency." This will doubtless check the supply; but it by no means leaves the supply to be regulated by the demand. This it has been reserved for the new Training College Minute ingeniously to do; for by it these institutions are to be paid according to the demand which they actually supply, not according to the supply which they choose to offer. It is thus the interest of the Normal Colleges to train no more students than are likely to find employment. Whatever may be the effect of this on the colleges, it is evident that its effect upon the profession will be to introduce a check upon the supply at least two years earlier than at present; and if this do not directly influence the supply of pupil-teachers, it will at least set the excess free to enter other professions when they can do so without disadvantage to themselves or their employers.

We fear that the economic principle by which Mr. Norris forsees an improvement in the remuneration of teachers will be too indirect, as well as too remote, in its operation, to compensate for the immediate loss which many of them anticipate from the working of the new Code. Our readers will, therefore, agree with us in thinking that Mr. Laurie is more profitably and more practically employed in inquiring how a possible deficiency of funds within the next year or two is to be supplied. He thinks it is to be met, not by an increase of local contributions, but, to a great extent, by increased school fees; and his suggestion is not only supported by the evidence of Mr. Bellairs, Mr. Scoltock, and other Inspectors, but is adopted in the Lord President's

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Report, in a way which indicates how much his Lordship appreciates the remedy, and by implication how much he dreads the disease. It appears that the present average rates of fees are too low for the majority of the children,—not only for families in "comfortable circumstances," but even for those of poorer parents. In proof of the practicable nature of the reform suggested, Mr. Laurie instances the case of the British school at Croydon, in which voluntary contributions to a considerable amount have been paid by the scholars, without their pressure being felt. As the account of the experiment, which is given in the words of the master, may be interesting to others similarly situated, we quote the passage entire :—

"When I took charge of my school in 1850, I found the fees at 1d., 1½d., and 2d. per week. Requisitions on my part for such necessaries as pencils or pencil cases were considered by the parents in the light of an extortion. After I had secured the good-will of most of the boys, I induced them to save a halfpenny of their own money for such objects. By the end of a couple of years I had established the right of requiring parents to provide those materials which their children need for their *home studies*, viz., a slate, a pencil, and a table book, the total cost of which was 5½d. By 1853, I was able to prevail upon the boys to purchase some useful monthly serials; and there subsequently followed subscriptions for a small library, which now consists of 600 books. In 1854, I brought before the notice of the committee of managers the desirability of charging each boy 2d. per week, but without success. I however repeated my application three times, and it was at length agreed to, on condition that if the scheme met with the disapprobation of parents I should abandon it. The plan worked well, and, in 1855, I recommended to the managers the propriety of raising the school fee from 2d to 4d. and 6d. per week, for those whose parents I knew would be able and willing to pay the advanced fee, if appealed to. In 1856, I obtained permission to make the attempt. I selected 41 to pay 6d. per week, and 56 to pay 4d. All without exception readily acceded to my request. The income of the school was by this means increased between £30 and £35 per annum. The new arrangement worked admirably; the attendance became more regular, and the spirit of the school more cheerful and earnest. All were, of course, taught and treated perfectly alike. I have now put in operation a still bolder scheme, which promises to be completely successful. School fees are now entirely voluntary, *i.e.*, above the minimum of 2d. The result is, that out of 280 boys between 30 and 40 boys are paying from 8d. to 1s. per week; 40 from 3d. to 6d.; while upwards of 180 pay for their own stationery."—P. 85.

Evening schools and drawing classes are also being seized upon by schoolmasters, as means which may be turned to account in making up deficiencies, which there is only too good reason to fear will fall with serious force in many quarters.

The condition of Unaided schools is another point which the stir of recent controversy has brought to the surface in these Reports. Schools of this class are never mentioned but to be condemned, and the condemnation is not confined to the state of the schools, but to the local meanness and prejudice which get the credit of keeping them in that state. The Reports, especially of Messrs. Norris and Stewart, are really elaborate replies to Mr. Walter, or a continuation of the Vice-President's reply to that gentleman's motion and speech in the House of Commons in May. Both gentlemen exhibit the same incapacity of the official mind to separate between Aided schools and Certificated schoolmasters; and they mix up with the question of the

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extension of aid, assertions of the superiority of trained teachers, which no one, we suppose, will be inclined to gainsay. The comparative merit of Certificated and Uncertificated teachers is really not in dispute. The main point to be considered is, Whether the unaided schools might not be improved, not merely by the addition of a little Government pay, but by the stimulus which the requirements of a fixed standard could not fail to supply? It is a striking fact that, though they represent a smaller number of children, the unaided schools in the country are to the aided as three to two. There can be little doubt, we think, that the subjecting of a half, or even a tithe of these 15,000 unaided schools to the annual scrutiny of a Government Inspector would not only, as was said in last number, "stir the dry bones of education wonderfully in many places," but would eventually increase the demand for certificated teachers. The point which Messrs. Norris and Stewart, with remarkable unanimity, seek to determine is, "that it is very seldom, if ever, the poverty of a parish that debars it from fulfilling your Lordships' conditions of aid." The obstacle, says Mr. Norris, in a large majority of cases, lies "simply in the indisposition of the squire or clergyman to stir in the matter." And Mr. Stewart adds: "To lower the conditions of public aid to the level of such unaided schools as I see would simply amount to dispensing with local exertion and local expenditure, or, in other words, it would be applying public money to pauper indifference or narrow prejudice." But this depends wholly on what the "conditions of public aid" in such cases would be. Certainly facts do not indicate any desire to get rid of "local exertion and local expenditure;" and when Mr. Stewart raised the cry of "indifference," he was not perhaps aware that while the average emoluments of certificated masters have in the past year increased by only 8s. 4d., those of uncertificated masters have increased by £3, 12s. 9d.; and that while the average emoluments of certificated mistresses have *fallen* by 1s. 10d., those of the uncertificated have *risen* by £2, 18s. 3d. This hardly looks like "indifference;" and moreover, the great "condition of aid" should be that the work be done, it matters not whether by a regular who has "taken the shilling," or a volunteer who "provides his own uniform." That is the principle of the Revised Code itself,—Mr. Lowe's favourite principle of "results;" and by this the credit of a school should stand or fall.

The effect which every one expected the Revised Code to have, in diverting attention from what are called "the higher subjects" in our schools, and ultimately in our training colleges, has already begun to show itself. Mr. Lynch has found it difficult to correct "an erroneous idea" prevailing amongst managers and teachers, "that the Education Department desires to discourage the teaching of any subjects beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic." After expressing his regret for this misapprehension, Mr. Lynch affirms, as Mr. Moncreiff had done in his last year's Report, that the elementary subjects are invariably best taught in those schools which stand highest in re-

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gard to the "higher subjects" also. Mr. Brookfield thus contrasts this tendency with that of former years :—

"In former years a general desire has been expressed by school managers and school teachers with whom I have come in contact to raise and extend the standard of school instruction, and whilst accuracy was maintained, to introduce geography and grammar, singing and drawing, as subjects of school instruction. During the past year I have found a great willingness on the part of school managers and teachers to be satisfied with the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, combined with religious knowledge, and to cast off, without sufficient thought, those other subjects of instruction which have been most useful to the children, and highly valued by the parents."—P. 15.

Dr. Morell thinks that "while more attention will be given to the elementary work of the schools generally, not very much appreciable *loss* will be felt in regard to those topics which are excluded from examination as a basis of pecuniary support." Mr. Brookfield, on the other hand, does not find that the elementary subjects have gained by the sacrifice :—

"I have found a deliberate and systematic discontinuance of instruction in geography and other subsidiary subjects upon which no *direct bonus* is proposed by the Revised Code ; and I have not found such discontinuance compensated by any corresponding improvement in the more elementary articles of reading, writing, and arithmetic. I think it important to record this, because it tends to justify a conjecture which, even in the absence of experience and observation, I should have been inclined to hazard, viz., that in a well adjusted school a judicious amount of such incidental, or, if I may be permitted such an incomplete expression, *marginal* instruction as may quicken and enlarge the intelligence and impart additional interest to the reading of a child will not, in the end, be likely to retard improvement in that most important of the three elementary subjects ; while, on the other hand, a strict limitation to the three mechanical subjects, to the entire exclusion of collateral and subsidiary instruction would seem not unlikely, by cramping and limiting the intelligence of the learner, to retard that progress in mere mechanical acquirement which it was intended to promote. I might not have felt called upon to say this but for a very prevalent misapprehension amongst managers and teachers, that in assigning the capitation *bonus* to proficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic, it was the intention of the Revised Code to discourage every other kind of instruction."—P. 41.

Coming now to speak briefly of the attainments of children in these elementary subjects on which so much depends, we find that arithmetic is the one concerning the teaching of which complaints are loudest. Adherence to traditional methods and to "mere blind routine," want of thorough ground-work, impatience of "first steps," are the different forms which the charge assumes. Use text-books sparingly, and keep to the black-board, would be our advice to the defaulters. Reading is more satisfactory. There is evidently a wholesome recoil in many quarters from the dreadful "useful knowledge" books lately in vogue. Several of the Inspectors recommend *Robinson Crusoe* as a wholesome substitute. It is certain that, to make children read intelligently and intelligibly, they must not only understand, but must be interested in, what is given them to read. The improvement in writing appears to be still more marked, though there is a protest against ladies' "fashionable" and "angular" handwriting, —a protest in which we heartily concur.

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In connexion with these elementary subjects, as well as with the more advanced, various important points are raised in the Blue Book, on which our declining space will not permit us to dwell. Mr. Bellairs and Mr. Stokes both express themselves decidedly on the superiority of individual examination over collective inspection. Writing to dictation is becoming more fully recognised as a part of the every-day work of schools. Mr. Alderson wisely suggests that it should not be reserved for the first class alone, and attributes to its being so reserved the fact that the spelling of the first class is disproportionately better than that of the lower classes. The same improvement is pointed at by Mr. Bellairs when he advises that, in Standard II., "easy monosyllabic dictation would be better than transcribing." Mr. Wilson also well remarks, that "that intuitive power of correct orthography, so characteristic of the cultivated mind, can only be acquired in the elementary school by a course of training in writing from dictation, *begun as soon as the child can form the letters on the slate*, and systematically carried on during the whole period of school attendance." The same Inspector also greatly commends the practice of committing to memory passages from our best writers in prose and verse. This exercise of "learning by heart" holds an important place in the new syllabus for training colleges, in connexion with which it receives the emphatic approval, amongst others, of Mr. Matthew Arnold.

In reporting on the attainments of pupil-teachers, and of students in training, the cognate subjects of grammar and composition come in for the largest share of hearty condemnation. "No improvement," says Mr. Fussell; "their weakest subjects," says Mr. Kennedy; "I do not think them improved," says Mr. Brodie; "often very deficient in composition," adds Dr. Woodford. Mr. Middleton, this year as last, stands alone in declaring grammar to be more "rational and practical," and in discovering "remarkable progress" in English composition.

Grave complaints are made also regarding the neglect of the training of pupil-teachers in school-management. Mr. Laurie's "opinion is that, as a rule, they get almost no training at all in the true sense of the term." Mr. Wilson finds "that little attention is paid to school-management in the special instruction of pupil-teachers." Mr. Wilkinson states that, while, as a body, they "have done their work very satisfactorily, ... their professional training is still below what it ought to be."

This is the point of contact of the elementary schools with the normal colleges; and as regards this subject, the reports on these institutions are more satisfactory. We notice, however, that in these reports the Inspectors are less critical and more descriptive in their remarks. Indeed, in this portion of the volume, personal compliments are by no means rare, perhaps because the Inspectors here come into contact with a higher grade of teachers, often their own personal friends. Nevertheless, Mr. Scoltock asserts that even here "more attention must be paid to school-management;" but he adds, "the fault does not rest with the instruction given at the college, but *with the teachers*

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of elementary schools." Even Mr. Cook—whose Report is an admirable exposition, and able defence of the system of training as applied to mistresses—can accord to this subject no more than the negative commendation that it is "not unsatisfactory." The Scotch Inspectors, on the other hand, especially Dr. Woodford and Dr. Cumming, bestow all but unqualified praise on this department, as conducted in the training-schools of the north.

Amongst normal students, as amongst pupil-teachers, the subject regarding which complaints are loudest is English composition. We are convinced that the deficiency in this department arises from the too ambitious nature of the exercises prescribed. The subject of grammar appears to be improving in the training colleges; and we are glad to find strong and decided testimony borne to the value of the analysis of sentences, not merely as a mental gymnastic, but as leading to a much sounder knowledge of the mother tongue, and to greater facility in using it, than any other kind of grammatical exercise. Dr. Woodford seems to hint that analysis is encroaching on that time-honoured "institution," verbal parsing. We should not mind though, to some extent, it did; for it seems to us a far more interesting, and in connexion with composition, which is the ultimate aim of grammatical teaching, a far more useful exercise.

Many interesting topics still remain unnoticed, which the length this article has already reached renders it inexpedient to take up at present. We could have wished to have quoted the useful remarks on night schools in Mr. Stoke's Report; on infant schools in Mr. Alderson's; on the old mode of annual examinations in Mr. Middleton's; and on the relations of the normal to the elementary school curriculum in Mr. Gordon's. The last-named gentleman's general Report contains valuable details as to the results of education amongst the mining population of Lanarkshire. And without question one of the most striking and interesting features of the year-book is the account given by Mr. Kennedy and Dr. Morell of the educational activity which has arisen in Lancashire in the very region of the greatest social distress. It is certainly a good sign of a country when its men and women who are thrown out of work go to school, instead of joining secret and revolutionary societies. But for all these points—as well as for those connected with poor-law schools, *e.g.*, that of the comparative expense and usefulness of union and district schools, discussed by Mr. Tuffnell,—space fails us. We must, however, in conclusion, congratulate the Inspectors upon the ability, intelligence, and zeal which characterize their Reports as a whole, and upon the interest which they succeed in imparting to a subject so tedious and, *primâ facie*, so repulsive, as the statistics of education.

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II.—ON PULPIT ELOQUENCE.

THERE has been some rather significant talk lately about pulpit eloquence, and pulpit influence, from the patient gentleman in the *Cornhill Magazine*, who complained that he had been "suffering from sermons," to Dr. Begg's pamphlet on the *Art of Preaching*, and Mr. Melville Bell's counter pamphlet on *Sermon Reading*, of which the titles are given below.* One somewhat furious, and several very sensible and moderate speeches on the same subject, were delivered at the late meeting of the General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland; so that the present moment may not appear an unfitting one for an impartial observer uttering a few plain and quiet words on a matter confessedly of no small public interest and importance. We say *impartial*, because it is not to be denied that a considerable amount of personal and party feeling has been mixed up with the treatment of this question. The manner of delivering sermons has become, strangely enough, in this country a sort of badge by which certain churches and certain parties are publicly known. An Episcopalian, for instance, in general, would as soon march into the wild country beyond the Jordan to hear the bulls of Bashan bellowing the gospel, as he would listen devoutly to the most eloquent discourse thundered out by a Calvinistic Boanerges of the North in what is called the *extempore* style, that is, not read directly from a written paper lying beneath the preacher's nose. Many a devout Presbyterian congregation, on the other hand, would feel unedified by the most sensible discourse ever put together by the mild wisdom of Canon Stanley, or the massive sense of Bishop Thirlwall, if it were read quietly from a sheet of white paper, without any display of what a pious Scotch lady, in answer to an interrogation of Dr. Candlish, called "the blast," to which it must be confessed that the presence of a piece of white paper before the eye of the preacher forms somewhat of an impediment. Within the Scottish Church, also, it must have been noted as a fact, though not without certain famous exceptions, that the Evangelical party were more given to extempore preaching, while the Moderates almost always read. The question, therefore, comes before us by no means clear of those party associations and local prejudices, which, especially in matters connected with religion, are so apt to interfere with a calm and philosophical judgment. In the present paper we mean to confine ourselves strictly to the question of how sermons are to be delivered so as to make them most effective; but those who discuss this point ought never to forget that the preliminary question, *of what stuff sermons are to be made*, is one that always must be settled before the other can be profitably raised. Nay, and there is another very serious question that must be kept in view before the consideration of the method of delivering sermons can lead to any great practical results, viz., the question, *of what stuff preachers are to be made*. For

* *The Art of Preaching.* By James Begg, D.D. Edinburgh: Nichol. 1863.
On Sermon Reading. By Alexander M. Bell. Edinburgh: Kennedy. 1863.

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if it be the case, as complaints not timidly whispered in both ends of the island seem to indicate, that the churches are being more and more filled with an inferior class of persons, and that men of great intellectual vigour, talent, and commanding character are less and less to be found on the ecclesiastical platform, then Dr. Begg, who is a shrewd practical man, and those who with him lament the decay of pulpit influence at the present day, must look somewhere else, in the first place, for increasing the effectiveness of the pulpit, before they seek help from the rules of the rhetorician, and the exercises of debating societies. If, either from a rigid adherence to antiquated forms and formulas, which is a matter that affects the inward spirit of the Church, or from a sinking in the social status of churchmen, arising from the change in the value of money, and the rapidly increasing wealth of the community — a matter that affects its external dignity and comfort — if from either or both of these causes a less number of highly gifted men are entering the churches, it will be in vain to expect the same amount of eloquence in the pulpit which would have been natural in days when preaching the gospel was not only morally the most noble, but socially, if not the highest, at least exposed to no injurious comparison with professions by which it is now overtopped. Nature is not lavish in the production of great intellectual power. "*Omnia praeclara,*" as Spinoza says, "*tam difficilia quam rara sunt.*" Here, as in other regions, mediocrity must be the rule; and the given amount of talent which belongs to any generation, if drawn upon powerfully for a new market, must leave a diminished supply in the old. It must be borne in mind also, that the pulpit at one time exercised an influence in this country which it is not reasonable to expect that it ever should regain. At the Reformation, theology was not only the great interest, but the one interest of the age. To command an Edinburgh pulpit then, as Knox did, was to stir all the passions, to mould all the thoughts, and to sway the whole destinies of the land. And even after those bloody struggles had ceased, which for nearly a century and a half made Church, and Church affairs, the absorbing consideration for all good citizens, the theologian still continued for some generations to sit alone on his throne of well-merited and hardly-won predominance. But it is not so now. Not only since the French Revolution have political questions, in complete separation from theological and ecclesiastical, assumed an importance unknown before, but science and literature also have found spokesmen, and organs, which exercise a sway over the public mind, of which, though the sanctions are less solemn, the influence is often more powerful. A British Association, a *Times* newspaper, and a *Quarterly Review*, are so many stages for high intellectual and moral action, of which the preachers in the days of Martin Luther and Latimer knew nothing, but with which the occupants of pulpits in the nineteenth century have to contend, it may be as antagonists, but always as formidable rivals, and effective competitors. On this altered condition of the public intelligence, therefore, let us fix our eye steadily, in the first place, before we hope too

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much from any improvement in the mere art of delivering sermons. In the present age, when knowledge is flying about in all directions, as thick as daisies on a green lea, the preacher must, above all things, consider what he has to say, and to what sort of audience he is speaking. The material out of which an effective modern sermon is to be constructed, will certainly not be found only in the Thirty-nine Articles, or in the Confession of Faith, or in Pearson on the Creed. Not that people have essentially changed their faith, but that a great number of new facts and speculations are constantly being bandied out in Chamberian Encyclopædias, Philosophical Lectures, *Good Words*, and all sorts of media, that require to be harmonized with their faith; and even independently of such facts and speculations, every age that is not half asleep requires to look at its faith from a new point of view, and to win a fresh and a more comprehensive formula from the comparison of the old and the new aspects of the same creed. A better furnished brain, and a more comprehensive survey of the great facts of nature and history, are the first postulates of all solid improvement in the art of preaching. Men must not preach from old theological formulas, but from the living ideas that are now stirring the soul of the pious and thoughtful men of the land. Bacon and James Watt must be looked upon as facts with which the preacher has to deal, as much as with Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; and the Hebrew Dictionary of Gesenius, though an indispensable *vade mecum* to the theologian, will not allow him to dispense with a knowledge—not quite superficial—of the pre-Adamite mammoth and megatherium, the great drift, the glacial period, and the boulder-clay. As for Greek and Latin, no doubt they also will continue to have their value; only a comparatively small value, however, in their old shape; for here also great alterative powers have been at work; and the most accurate knowledge of the Porsonian canons, and the history of the Æolic Digamma, will add no perceptible weight to the authority of a theologian who has to address an audience, among whom there may be not a few who have studied in the school of such philological masters as Boeckh and Ottfried Müller, Wolf, Niebuhr, Mommsen, Cornewall Lewis, and George Grote.

With all these indispensable postulates and warnings,—with all this preparation for rich and various and apt matter,—there cannot be the slightest doubt that the DELIVERY is still an all-important point in the presentation of any reasonable discourse to a reasonable congregation. Of course, a man must have something to say, in the first place; in the second place, he must have something good to say; but, in the third place, certainly he must say it like a man, and not like a beast—like a sane man, and not like a madman—like a sober man, and not like a drunkard—like a man awake, and not like a man asleep. When Æschines, according to a well-known story in Valerius Maximus, paid a visit to Rhodes, an island famous not only for its commerce and navigation, but for its love of literature, he, at the request of some influential citizens, gave a public reading of his own oration against Ctesiphon, and the reply of Demosthenes. At the conclusion of the

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reading, great admiration of both speeches was expressed by the audience, but especially of that of Demosthenes. "*What,*" says Æschines, "*if you had heard the man himself! I have only read the speech, and perhaps not read it in the best style; but if you had felt, as I have felt, the keen glance of his eye, the terrible weight of his countenance, the awful power of his voice, and the significant gesture of his body, then you would have known what we mean when we talk of the δεινότης of Demosthenes! True it is that the oration I have now read to you is so perfect, that one can neither add to it, nor take from it, without injury; but a great part of Demosthenes is lost, when another reads the speech which he delivered.*" This anecdote shows the value which the ancients put upon the manner in which an oration was delivered; and it is extremely interesting, in the very same chapter, to find recorded the opinion of the great orator himself on the same point. When Demosthenes was asked, what he considered the most important point in oratory, he replied, ὑπόκρισις; and being asked what was next in importance, he still replied, ὑπόκρισις; and on the question being repeated again, he replied, a third time, ὑπόκρισις. Now this ὑπόκρισις was just what we call *delivery*, and what the Romans called *actio;* an element in oratorical effect which is insisted on by Cicero with peculiar emphasis: "*Accedat oportet* ACTIO *varia, vehemens, plena animi, plena spiritus, plena doloris, plena veritatis.*" It is absurd indeed to suppose, that that which gives such a charm to the conversation of talented and well-educated persons—a manner at once natural and graceful, powerful and pleasing—should not play an equally prominent part in the more serious and formal addresses of the platform and the pulpit. All vocal exhibition, like every sort of exhibition, is subject to the eternal laws that regulate the beautiful and sublime; and in a speech, as in a poem, it is the manner more than the matter that indicates the superior artist. A score of men, or a hundred men, may say a sensible thing suitable to a particular time and place; but only the poet says it *well*, to affect the imagination, only the great orator, to move the will.

In order to determine on reliable grounds what is the method of delivery most suitable for pulpit discourses, we must ask first, what is generally the most natural, the most pleasing, and the most effective style of addressing our fellow-men, on any subject, and then inquire, what are the peculiarities of moral and religious discourses addressed to Christian congregations, by which that general style may in this particular case require to be modified. Now, we think, there can be no doubt whatsoever, that the man who wishes to move his fellow-beings in any way directly by words, will not consider it the most effective method to interpose a written paper between himself and the person or persons whom he is addressing. He may, indeed, have a book or a tract in his hand, but if he does not choose to devolve the functions of teaching his living brother on a dead book, he will speak directly from his own soul, and with his own mouth, and will look upon any piece of interposed writing as a pedantry and an impediment. Man, in fact, is not naturally a reading, but a speaking

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animal; and paper written or printed is an ingenious invention not to intercept the action of spoken words, but to preserve the memory of them when they are spoken. How foolish, for instance, would Achilles boiling over, and flashing out with fiery indignation at the haughty Agamemnon, have looked with a paper in his hand! Or the king of men himself, would he have looked at all kingly, and not rather very like a schoolmaster, if he had told the priest of Apollo to go and whine his complaints to the waves of the mighty-murmuring sea, from a written piece of parchment or papyrus! It has been much doubted, indeed, whether the divine old minstrel himself ever wrote a word of his two immortal epics; certainly if he wrote them, he wrote them only for preservation, not for use; for there were neither writers nor readers in those days, in the modern sense of the term; and a servant of the Muses then, with a harp in his hand, would as soon have dreamt of dancing a Cretan jig with brazen fetters at his heels, as of singing a song, or making a recitation, with a piece of paper interposed between his own eyes and the eyes of the people whom he entertained. Neither was it otherwise in the great days of Greek and Roman eloquence. Quinctilian, the most judicious, the most comprehensive, and the most eloquent writer on eloquence that ever wrote, while he has most important chapters on delivery and pronunciation, on extempore and on prepared speeches, nowhere says a single word, so far as I have seen, about reading speeches. Æschines, in the story above quoted, did indeed read a speech of Demosthenes to the Rhodians; but the whole anecdote implies, that such a thing as reading a public address intended to move a congregation of living men never entered into the conception of the ancients. There were poets, doubtless, as Juvenal indignantly exclaims, who then, as now, bored their much-enduring friends, by reading to them sounding inanities from unpublished poems, in Academic or Palatine bowers, or, as we would modify the thing in these times, at "æsthetical teas." But of a read oration, as we have read sermons, there appears, in Greek and Roman times, to be no record. Persons there were, no doubt, who, like John Gibson Lockhart in our own days, could write admirable private addresses, but in public never uttered a word. Such a one was Isocrates, who is reckoned among the orators, because he wrote orations on public affairs; but he did this as a trainer of orators, a professor of rhetoric and belles-lettres, as we would say, not as himself claiming the character, and was, in fact, no more entitled to be called an orator than a man now-a-days could be called a preacher, who should employ himself in writing sermons, though he never preached them, nor was ever once known to enter a pulpit. Nor does the practice of modern times in this matter appear to be in any way different. Great statesmen, great generals, great politicians, great lawyers, all address their fellow-beings in the ancient Greek and Roman fashion, without paper, and do so with acceptance. No man, I presume, would have thought Lord Palmerston's public appearances, on a late perambulation of this northern half of the island, improved, if he had read his addresses instead of speaking them. Who

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tolerates an after-dinner speech, read either from a paper lying before the speaker's face, or hung up—as we may sometimes discern—in the back-wall of his memory, and read slavishly off from that, when the gentleman ought to be looking his audience in the face, and winging his words through a sympathetic assembly with the flash of a natural fervour, and the light of an unaffected hilarity? Lawyers often speak from pretty extended jottings of precedents and notes of their adversaries' pleadings; but a regularly read speech in Westminster Hall, or in the Court of Session, was never heard of. Judicial speakers generally pay the judges, and the jury always, the very natural compliment of looking them in the face. And wisely. For who can tell whether a look from Henry Cockburn, or Patrick Robertson, may not have done more to move fifteen choice men, than the best turned sentence that the art of Isocrates ever engrained into white paper? Mankind upon the whole, therefore, in modern as well as ancient times, seem pretty unanimous on the point, that read public addresses are less effective than spoken ones, and not to be allowed.

But there are exceptions. Let us look at them. The secretary of a society, at the annual meeting of the directors, always reads the report, he does not speak it; a scientific man, at a section of the British Association, or a meeting of the Royal Society, generally does so; public lectures, at mechanics' and other institutions, are generally read; Sir William Hamilton read his eloquent discourses on the Unconditioned in the University of Edinburgh; and academical lectures, in all places, are more generally read than spoken; Scotch sermons not unfrequently are read, and English sermons almost always. Now, all these exceptions plainly do not stand on the same ground. A dry detail of uninteresting facts is read, and not spoken, because it would serve no purpose to take the trouble of committing it to memory. Only if a secretary of a society did happen to know all the facts in his report, and preferred to state them to the audience, without the printed paper before him, I rather think his hearers would appreciate the change. For if the spoken address was not inferior to the read one in accuracy, it would certainly be superior to it in animation. As to the case of papers read before learned or scientific societies, the custom of reading them seems to have arisen from the fact that scientific gentlemen are often altogether unpractised in speaking, and, moreover, have often written the paper on purpose that it may be printed in the Transactions; for, when the scientific man can speak, there can be no doubt that a spoken statement of his views is often more effective than a written one. I, for one, remember to have received a more distinct impression, at the geological section of the British Association, from a short *viva voce* statement made by Professor Ramsay, than from long written papers by certain other members. The same observation I have made at the Royal Society; when the gentleman rose from his desk, and left his paper, and spoke directly from the fact firmly grasped by his conception, his instructive power was greater than when he sat. As to popular lectures, delivered at literary institutions, some of the most effective lectures I ever heard—as those by Mr. Dawson of Birming-

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ham—were delivered either altogether without notes, or the lecturer did not seem to require to use them. University lectures, in the same way, though generally read, do not seem to owe any of their excellence to that peculiarity; for it is a well-known fact, that some of the most distinguished lecturers in the medical school of Edinburgh, and elsewhere, have delivered, and do still deliver, the most instructive discourses on their art without a single scrap of paper. In the pulpit also, the practice varies. Dr. Begg, so far as our observation goes, is right in asserting that Catholic preachers do not generally read discourses, but speak without paper, according to the ideal of the pious ladies in Scotland, who think that there ought to be a free course open to "the blast;" that is, to adopt the language of Cicero, above quoted, that a man ought to speak full of fire and full of force, full of passion and full of nature, to which the presence of paper is certainly not favourable. The case of the English Church, therefore, is manifestly peculiar; and on account of the acknowledged learning, and high intellectual superiority of what Dr. Chalmers called that "noble hierarchy," deserves to be seriously considered.

What are the reasons generally alleged in England for the almost universal preference given to the practice of reading pulpit addresses? The two following are those which we have generally heard. First, English devout persons say that the whole tone and character of devotion in the Anglican Church is of that calm, steady, well-ordered character which suits better with the measured tread of a read discourse, than with the vehement flow of a spoken one. Then it is alleged that the beautiful propriety of chaste and chosen expression, to which the English people have been accustomed in their admirable liturgy, has begotten in their minds an aversion to all sorts of extempore exhibition, whether in the shape of prayers or sermons. They do not like to sit in their neatly carved pews, exposed to the fitful buffets of windy emotion in a talker, who speaks more from the hot impulse of the moment, than from the cool result of well-weighed thought. There is something in these objections which expresses well that fine combination of dignified propriety of manner, with solidity of matter, so conspicuous in the English character. Nevertheless it is impossible for an impartial thinker to allow them such weight as to overbalance the voice of nature, the practice of the Greeks and Romans, and the authority of Quinctilian in this matter. True that the Christian devotion of English people is quiet and unimpassioned, not wild and orgiastic, like the worship of the Galatian Cybele; but it is not therefore necessary that tame reading should take the place of animated speaking, in the address to which devout persons listen, after their prayers are ended. There are various styles of eloquence: and the advantage which the freedom of spoken discourse, according to the instinct of all men, possesses over slavish reading, will still be felt in a style of oratory which approaches nearer to the graceful elegance of Isocrates, than to the fervid power of Demosthenes. Then as to extempore speaking, if by this be meant that a man is to stand up before an audience of reasonable beings, and set an army of words to march out of

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his mouth, without plan, as Don Quixote allowed his Rosinante to choose her own paces, when he set out on his career of memorable achievement; then we say most heartily that the English aversion to any exhibition of this kind, whether in the pulpit or elsewhere, is most just and reasonable. If the choice lies between a boisterous extemporization of unstudied windy speech, and a quiet measurement of deliberately written sentences, by all means let us have the latter. But the fact is, this alternative is not presented to us any more than it was to Quinctilian, and the ancient teachers of the noble art of public speaking. Speaking without paper does not mean speaking without preparation, but quite the contrary; as on the other hand reading from paper does not in any wise necessarily imply speaking either from rich stores of materials, or from a vast expenditure of thought. That the ancient orators spoke without paper is certain; that the ancient teachers of eloquence held extemporary delivery to be the perfection of public speaking, is equally certain; but the one by practice, and the other by precept, taught emphatically that, without systematic preparation, severe study, and constant exercise, no effective delivery is possible. It may be useful to refer specifically on this head both to Demosthenes and Quinctilian. Plutarch, in his life of the orator, expressly states that he was the most diligent of men in preparing himself for his oratorical exhibitions; that he was constantly gathering hints, and turning periods in season and out of season; that he borrowed from all parties, and appropriated their excellences so largely, that he was said by many to be a man of no genius, οὐκ εὐφυής, but one who had acquired the habit of powerful and effective speaking only by the diligent and wise use of foreign materials. And his want of original genius was naturally concluded from this, that it was one of the rarest things for any person to hear him speak extempore, ἐπὶ καιροῦ; and frequently, when he was sitting in the assembly, though the people called on him by name to speak, he would not come forward, unless he had prepared and carefully premeditated what he was to say. This preparation indeed was so notorious, that the fluent demagogues used to banter him, saying that his lucubrations smelt of the lamp. To which the orator replied sharply, that he hoped "his lamp burned, and always would burn with a very different odour from theirs." To more favourable critics, however, he spoke openly, and said that he neither wrote every part of his speeches anxiously, nor spoke altogether without written preparation. And as for the two styles of speaking, he was of opinion that the man who prepared most carefully, behaved more like a truly democratic man, for careful preparation was the greatest mark of respect that a man could show to his audience; whereas to take little care of how his language might affect his hearers, was the sign of an aristocratic temper, and of a man who thought he had a right to ride over the wills of his audience, rather than a privilege to draw them by free persuasion to his ends. Thus far the Chaeronean. We read no where that Demosthenes addressed the population of the Pnyx in a reading style from paper; but we see here plainly that he prepared carefully on paper. It never occurred to him that there was any connexion

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between careful preparation and reading slavishly from a paper. But Quinctilian, in the admirable concluding chapter of his tenth book, goes much further; and, while he pronounces the faculty of strictly extemporary utterance absolutely necessary to an accomplished orator, he never hints for a moment that such a faculty can be acquired without years of most laborious study and exercise. Let us ponder his very words:—"*Maximus vero fructus est, et velut præmium quoddam amplissimum longi laboris, ex tempore dicendi facultas: quam qui non erit consecutus, meâ quidem sententiâ, civilibus officiis renunciabit, et solam scribendi facultatem potius ad alia opera convertet;*" which in plain English is just to express his decided opinion that the man who does not aspire to the ready faculty of extempore address, as the natural culmination of his art, had better at once sacrifice all notion of public speaking, and confine himself to writing, or, as the lawyers say, to chamber practice. Then he goes on to say, that circumstances so often arise suddenly, which make it wise in a man to alter a prepared speech, that one who cannot make this alteration on a sudden call must be constantly unequal to the occasion, and may in fact be compared to a pilot, who guarantees to steer you up the stream when the wind is moderate and favourable, but as soon as an unexpected adverse gust arises, drives you upon a sand-bank. But to show how little he cares for the mere extempore faculty taken by itself, independently of its subserving a necessary occasion, the great rhetorician adds:—"*Neque ego hoc ago ut ex tempore dicere* MALIT, *sed ut* POSSIT." And a little lower down, aware that frequent use of the extempore style may lead to carelessness and colloquialism, he says, pithily, "*Scribendum certe nunquam est magis, quam cum multa dicimus ex tempore.*" And perhaps, he goes on to say, extempore speaking and the constant practice of writing materially assist one another in this way, that "while by writing we speak with more accuracy, by speaking we write with more facility." Nothing can be more distinct than this. Extempore speaking, in Quinctilian's view, is not that "*tumultuarii et fortuiti sermonis contextus,*" which English opinion generally opposes to read discourses—a turbid and inorganic torrent of words, "*quem jurgantibus etiam mulierculis superfluere video,*"—which even brawling fishwives can vent with marvellous effect, but it is the ripest fruit of years of laborious study, and the highest effort of cultivated genius. It is so far from presuming carelessness, that it imperatively demands a more than usual amount of care. It is like the dexterity acquired by jugglers who play with balls, by tumblers, rope-dancers, and musical performers. They extemporize with the most accomplished ease when they have finished their training, just because they exercise themselves with the most systematic pains when they commence it.

It appears, therefore, that the English feeling in favour of read discourses is something quite national and peculiar; one of those extraordinary singularities in our insular character, which, like the anomalies in our glorious constitution, it so sadly puzzles the brains of ratiocinative foreigners to comprehend. An anomaly certainly

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it seems of the most startling kind, that our practice in this most important matter should run so directly in the teeth of both the practice and precept of those great ancients, the study of whose works gives such a peculiar tone to our scholastic and academic education. Some strange cause there must be for so extraordinary a phenomenon, lying no doubt in the habit and constitution of the English Church, or of the English scholastic institutions; for it cannot possibly be in the habit of the English people, as Fox and Pitt, Brougham and Gladstone, have exercised the noble art of public eloquence in this country, exactly in the same way that Pericles and Demosthenes did amongst the Greeks. It appears to me that the English preference for read sermons is to be attributed to a general suspicion of the spontaneous and impulsive element in religion, arising out of a profound respect for their own liturgical service, combined with a strongly pronounced antagonism to a circumambient atmosphere of dissent, in which the rights of unshackled utterance in religious worship have been asserted, sometimes with a violence incompatible with grace, and a passion that owed no allegiance to reason. In the English Church, as in the Platonic republic, a reasonable prescribed order is the great power everywhere present, to which the freedom of the individual must be sacrificed. In harmony with this marked tendency of the Church, the whole course of juvenile training in school and college, under the influence throughout of ecclesiastical persons, has been so conducted, that the development of a free and ready faculty of graceful and impassioned speech never seems to have entered seriously into the calculations of the teachers. The consequence has been that a style of pulpit oratory has become normal in England, which is based upon reading, not upon speaking; that is, upon cool deliberate statement addressed to the understanding, rather than upon earnest and fervid appeal to the whole man. The English preacher, when most accomplished, according to the national type, is often a Cyclopean architect, building solid walls of massive masonry, with blocks which only a Titanic hand could move; but he is never, like Pericles, an Olympian Jupiter shaking the land with well-launched thunderbolts. Eloquence, in the Demosthenic sense of the word—that δεινότης of which Æschines found it so impossible to give the Rhodians any idea—seems to be rather avoided than sought by the leading minds of the Anglican Church. Nay, even positive tameness has become with many an established virtue in the pulpit, and fervour a fault which might seriously discompose the nerves of pious persons, accustomed only to the quiet hum of murmured prayers, and the luxurious undulations of intoned psalms. In short, the read sermon has become, in the great majority of cases, the systematically dull, flat, and unprofitable affair, of which all the world has been complaining. In Scotland, on the other hand, where complaints of the declining influence of the pulpit have also made themselves audible in notable quarters, one cannot say, with any truth, that tameness, engendered by slavish adherence to written papers, has been one of the causes of such declension. What the Scotch preachers as a body want is a more thorough

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training in the scholarly foundations of theology, a more comprehensive grasp of the great facts of nature and history, a larger sweep of human sympathy, and more knowledge of the world. And in respect of pulpit eloquence, while they have some glaring faults, one cannot say that the tame reading of written discourses is one of them. Nor can it be denied, that with all their faults, both of manner and matter, they have produced a numerous phalanx of distinguished pulpit and platform speakers. Andrew Thomson and Edward Irving, Thomas Chalmers and Thomas Guthrie, are names that did not achieve a British celebrity without adequate cause. It may be said with truth, that in our pulpit oratory we have not been careful to cultivate that graceful trick of wedding art to nature, without which, in eloquence as in poetry, no high excellence is attainable. We are vigorous, but not pleasing speakers; our strength grates itself into harshness; we are intense, but not bright; and our solemnity has a tendency to become sepulchral. In one word, neither in preaching, nor in the whole form and conception of our religious services, do we pay any attention to the Graces. This is our national weak point; and it were vain to conceal it. But whatever the faults of our pulpit delivery be, it cannot be said that we run systematically in the teeth of all that Quinctilian and the great masters of rhetoric among the ancients have taught on the art of public speaking. When we speak our sermons—which may be said to be our characteristic national fashion,—we speak them, it may be, with too much harsh, strong, boisterous bellowing, and convulsive wriggling on occasions; but we speak often with a fearless, wild sort of natural power, not devoid of charm, and we do not speak systematically, as if we thought it the first duty of a preacher to send his audience into a pious sleep. If, on the other hand, we read our sermons, which Dr. Chalmers, Dr. Candlish, and many of our most effective preachers have done, we study to read them with a living conviction, that to read a speech is one thing, and to read an essay or a scientific paper another and a very different thing. We have not laid it down as a respectable maxim, that eloquence is dangerous or indecorous in a Christian pulpit. We hold that a man must not address an assembly of moral beings with less urgency and fervour, on the most important of all interests, than a politician does an assembly of statesmen about the adjustment of a budget, or a lawyer does a jury about the assessment of damages in a petty case of libel. We are of opinion that a man ought to preach, not with his voice only, but with his whole soul and his whole body, as Caius Gracchus did, and Cicero; and that it is better to give nature vent with a rude earnestness, than to clip the adventurous limbs and flourishes of speech into a tame decency and a lame propriety.

These observations, the reader will bear in mind, refer strictly to the delivery of sermons, to the manner in which they are enunciated, not the matter which they contain. For in respect of this important element the English pulpit discourses if not superior generally to the Scotch, contain a greater proportion of weighty and well-considered

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compositions, which a man can both hear with great pleasure, and study privately with no small profit. It is also to be borne in mind, that our remarks apply to the general type of pulpit eloquence in both parts of the island, not to individual preachers of distinguished talent, who represent only themselves, and are no fair sample of the body to which they belong. Thus in Scotland, Dr. Robert Lee, though a Presbyterian, is a preacher of decidedly Episcopalian type; and his sermons, accordingly, are marked by a learning, a sobriety, a judiciousness, an acuteness, and a largeness of view, far from common in our Northern pulpits. In England, on the other hand, the Bishop of Oxford can shake his lawn sleeves with a vigour, and launch his sounding sentences with an intensity of projection, that claims more kinship with Chalmers and Andrew Thomson, than with the calm, and often tame dignity, that characterizes the official utterance of the Episcopal bench; for bishops, to speak the truth, in the exercise of their most delicate and difficult functions, do not require to be eloquent, and therefore very seldom are so. The man who is most potent to rouse, is not always the most safe to guide; and one eloquent bishop, in critical times, with a good but unseasonable idea in his head, might do more harm to the Church in a single hour, than bands of unvalued heresy-mongers, with the slow adulteration of years.

We conclude these remarks with a single suggestion as to the best means of improving the pulpit eloquence of this country. Of course, we suppose that a fair proportion of the average and superior talent of the land will continue to flow into the ecclesiastical channel; for, as stated on starting, it is plain that no skill in the carver can produce beautiful work, if the material which he gets to carve be coarse. Now, the two elements on which public speaking depends, are memory and enunciation; and on the assiduous culture of these, of course, the faculty of effective eloquence must grow. Quinctilian insists upon both these elements with a weight and with a minuteness that leaves us in doubt which most to admire, his philosophical analysis, or his practical skill. "Memory," he says, "is the treasury of eloquence;" and though its cultivation, like other faculties, requires toil, yet he comforts the laborious student of eloquence, by the assurance that of all faculties *nihil æque vel augetur curâ, vel negligentiâ intercidit*—no faculty gains more by use, or loses more by neglect. Now, if we look into the practice of our schools and colleges, we shall see that though by the study of languages memory receives a very thorough training in a particular way, yet that particular action of memory which Quinctilian has in view as necessary to a great orator, receives a very meagre cultivation, perhaps none at all; while the graceful and masterly use of language without paper, to which this memory is subservient, is left altogether to the accident of a debating society, and the chances of public life. In our best schools, no doubt, some attention is now generally paid to recitation of striking passages in English, Greek, or Latin authors, committed to memory; but this is a very different thing from the habit of marshalling our own thoughts without paper, and putting them readily into a graceful form, in which public speaking

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consists. The importance of commencing this exercise at an early period, when the organs are flexible, and before bad habits are acquired, is largely insisted on by the Roman rhetorician; and it is in our schools and colleges, therefore, and not in the bishop's palace or the presbytery hall, that the evil is to be remedied, of which Dr. Begg so lustily complains. That there is something radically wrong in our scholastic and academic arrangements in this matter, I for one have long been convinced. That the training of our great schools and colleges is in any way specially favourable to eloquence, no man, I presume, will assert; that it ought to have this tendency there can be no doubt; as, indeed, the *Grammatica* and *Rhetorica* of the old academical curriculum were never intended to make grammarians, but to make speakers. If, in reference to the present subject, I am to speak out in a single word what appears to me the main defect in the public education of this country, I will say that it is too bookish. It has far too much to do with dead paper, and far too little with living functions. We force the most difficult tasks of a bookish quality, such as writing Latin verses, even upon those who have no natural talent for verse in any shape; while the faculty of graceful expression in the mother tongue, which admits and demands cultivation in all, is systematically neglected. Till some radical reform shall take place in this department, I do not think we can reasonably look for any great improvement in the style of our pulpit addresses. The mass will remain untrained, and incapable or unambitious of rhetorical excellence, as they are at present; while the few who have a decided genius for public oratory, and manage by much practice to sway the minds of men after some fashion in public assemblies, may count themselves happy that they have neither an English Quinctilian to expose their defects, nor an ecclesiastical Demosthenes by whom to gage their dimensions.

One other remark seems to be called for by considerations of Christian charity, and kindly regard for the services of one of the most laborious and devoted bodies of public servants in the land—the ministers of the Gospel. It is most unreasonable to expect that all who officiate in holy things, and are most useful and efficient parish priests, should be eloquent preachers. The House of Commons or the House of Lords, which are select assemblies, may teach us how few among a given body of men are calculated to become great speakers; how considerable a proportion, though capable of improvement by training, are wiser to confine their services to the private investigations of the committee-room, and the utility of a silent vote. The clergy also are a select body; it is the better heads and the better hearts of the country, on the whole, we hope, that enlist under the sacred banner of the cross; but even supposing they were more select than they are, it were too much to expect that they should be all calculated to shine, or even to attain to moderate excellence as public speakers. People, therefore, have no right to go to any church at random, and if they do not hear an eloquent discourse, complain that they have not been edified. The best Christians and the wisest men will be the first to confess, that the true sources of edification in church attendance lie

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much deeper than in the conduct of a preacher's argument, or the modulation of his voice. If we are to have a greater number of more eloquent pulpit discourses, we must not only radically reform our scholastic and academic habits, but we must take a hint from a quarter whence we are least willing to borrow, from the Romanists, and learn both to preach fewer sermons, and to use more chosen instruments in preaching. Perhaps, also, St. Paul may furnish us with an indication of what is wrong in our system: for he says expressly that there are various gifts in the Church, and the gift of preaching is only one, which it is unfair to demand from every office-bearer, who ministers faithfully in holy things. We see that public lecturers, when they show any particular talent, travel over the length and breadth of the land, and are made the means of stirring up the whole country to a higher intellectual activity. In the Church, at least in most Protestant churches, it is otherwise. We have no band of itinerant evangelists; which, considering the paucity of high-preaching power, it were but reasonable that we should have. But this is an idea which stands too far apart from the existing ecclesiastical arrangements of this country to have any practical significance here; only let it warn us to be charitable in our judgments of the present race of preachers, and moderate in our demands.

J. S. Blackie.

III. NOTES ON SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

English Composition is the subject of study about which, in all classes of schools, we hear the most frequent complaints. We do not state this because—like the patentee of the last new shirt, or the founder of the last new school—we wish to make out a case of "long-felt desideratum," which we are specially commissioned to supply. The evidence of dissatisfaction is unfortunately too abundant and too conclusive, to call for the exercise of any ingenuity in the present case. It is not more than six months since Dr. Ernest Adams, in a lecture* delivered before the College of Preceptors, condemned in no measured terms nearly every one of the methods of teaching Composition at present in use; and the general concurrence expressed by the meeting in his views, which were for the most part sound and sensible, may be taken as showing how largely they are shared by our middle-class schoolmasters. The Inspectors of schools have been for several years past all but unanimous in the expression of their dissatisfaction with this branch of instruction, as taught both in the training colleges and in the elementary schools. In the last published Report of the Privy-Council, these complaints are as loud, and quite as numerous as before.

* Since separately published by Messrs. Rivingtons.

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If this, then, is the state of matters as regards the "youthhood" of the country,—and we have the assurance of men well qualified to judge that it is so,—we need not be surprised that so few men write well, and that so many practised writers commit inexcusable blunders in the use of the mother-tongue. These conclusions are in one respect confirmed by the controversy about the Queen's English, with which certain amateur grammarians have recently been amusing the public. That word-combat, if it has done no more, has at least shown how prevalent are unsettled, if not unsound, notions on many points which ought hardly to admit of doubt. The main fact, however, is undeniable, that, notwithstanding the number of people who write in these days, but few have command even of that simple accuracy which the most ordinary education should impart. We cannot take up a newspaper, we can hardly take up a volume, in which we do not find intelligent and educated men committing grave grammatical errors. Some men, even men who have spent years in learning other languages than their own, write sentences in their mother-tongue which, in school-boy phrase, simply "won't construe." We strongly suspect that this could not occur if, as boys, they were more systematically accustomed to construe sentences. There are, probably, twenty men who can work correctly through an intricate arithmetical sum, for every one who can work through a correspondingly intricate sentence. Nor are the two things here compared so dissimilar as may at first sight be supposed. The power of handling words and combining them into sentences, is as necessary in the process of thinking, as the power of marshalling figures is in the process of calculating. Yet men are in general much better arithmeticians than they are grammarians. This, doubtless, is owing partly to the more serious consequences attending an arithmetical than a grammatical blunder. This explanation, however, does not go deep enough. It must be added, that just because of this broader utilitarianism in figures,—of the greater credit that attaches to proficiency in reckoning, and of the sterner fate by which the lack of it is punished,—the handling of figures, under every possible condition and with every variety of permutation, is much more systematically practised, and much more carefully taught, than the handling of words.

Indeed it is only lately that this has been recognised as a part of English Composition. That subject has generally been treated as synonymous with essay writing. This exercise the pupil is expected to perform without any previous training in the principles or the practice of Composition, and as if by a kind of instinct. Frequently before the pupil has been taught to put two thoughts together, or knows when he has written a sentence that will construe, he is asked to write an essay on "The British Constitution," on the proposition that "Virtue is its own reward," or on the "Universality of moral distinctions." Even in the case of very young pupils the same plan, with slight modifications as to subject, is adopted. We have heard of boys who could not write—though they could print in a bold style that would have pleased the Lords of Council,—and who were reading

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such stories as Jack the Giant Killer, and the Three Bears,—being told that they were to bring, a week after, an *Essay on Spring:* much as if the little mortals had been asked, as their first exercise in arithmetic, to extract the cube root of 2! It is impossible to justify such a mode of procedure; no words are necessary to expose its absurdity; it is simply and literally preposterous.

For the fundamental error in the system is, that it requires the construction of a whole before it has taught the construction of the parts,—it asks a complete essay from those who barely understand how to form a single sentence. And this is the point to which we would specially direct the attention of teachers. We wish to show them that the old system begins at the wrong end, and that if they would confine their attention to the teaching of sentence-building,—at least in all but their highest forms,—they would immensely save their own labour, and far more surely make their pupils good writers. Accuracy of style depends chiefly on skill in these two processes,—first, the making of sentences; second, the combining of sentences with one another;—and on the former more than the latter. Yet, in the teaching of English, there is nothing so little attended to as the making of sentences. It is not so in the teaching of the classical tongues. It is often said that our most chaste and polished English writers have derived the exactness and beauty of their style from their study of ancient models. This is true; but not altogether in the sense usually attached to it. We believe it arises less from the inherent majesty and compactness of these languages, than from the habit of minutely examining the structure of sentences, and of single clauses, which the study of these tongues engenders, and which, by years of constant practice, becomes a second nature. Every sentence translated from Latin or Greek is an exercise, it may be unconsciously, first in analysis, then in synthesis; and in the process, the boy acquires a thorough knowledge of the parts of sentences, and a power of knitting them together, which he afterwards finds to be as applicable to his own language as to the dead tongues. And what is true of translation is still more so of re-translation, by which composition in the ancient languages is mainly taught. There, the pupil begins with "simple" sentences; and he goes on with no more than single sentences, often for years before he attempts to write down even a paragraph of original thoughts in Latin or in Greek. Hence, we say, the greater accuracy as well as elegance of style to which the study of these languages conduces; and we maintain that if a similarly careful training in English sentence-building were gone through, the same, or nearly the same, benefits would arise. The foreigner who studies English systematically, uses it, when at last he has mastered its peculiarities, with greater accuracy and propriety than the great mass even of educated Englishmen. In fact, we write English so badly because we have the misfortune to be too familiar with it. It is in order in some measure to counteract this tendency to loose writing that the process of SYNTHESIS has been suggested,—a process which proceeds on the very natural principle that men should learn to make bricks and hew

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stones before they attempt to build houses,—or, according to the proverb, that "We must creep before we gang."

What we understand by *Synthesis* will be gathered from the following examples of the process. The exercise is so novel, and in some respects so peculiar, that we shall, for the sake both of teachers and of learners, work out these examples in detail, so as to show the best method of dealing with them.

We begin, as is natural, with simple sentences. Certain elements are given us, as data, out of which we have to form a simple sentence, —a sentence with one predicate. These elements represent the numerous ideas which crowd upon the mind when engaged in composition, and which the unpractised find it so difficult to adjust and assort. They are like the miscellaneous mass of figures which it requires the skill of an artist to group into the unity and harmony of a picture.

In synthesis, as in analysis, the first step is to fix upon the predicate, which, with its inseparable attendant, the subject, forms the pivot on which the sentence turns. Around these two essential elements all the others cluster, either as attributes to the latter, or as enlargements of the former. Suppose, then, that we have such elements as the following placed before us :—

(*a*) A certain *crime was facilitated* in England.
(*b*) This was done in the end of the reign of Edward I.
(*c*) The crime was that of clipping the coin.
(*d*) It was facilitated by the custom of cutting the silver penny.
(*e*) This custom was sanctioned by law.
(*f*) The penny was cut into halves and quarters.

We are required to introduce all these circumstances into a simple sentence.

I. We take the words in italics as the subject and predicate, *crime was facilitated.*

II. Attached to *crime* we find only one attribute, viz., in (*c*), the crime *of clipping the coin.* Attached to *was facilitated,* we find three adverbials, viz., in (*a*) (place), *in England;* in (*b*) (time), *in the early part of the reign of Edward I.;* in (*d*) (manner), *by the custom of cutting the silver penny.* In (*e*) we find an attribute to *custom,* viz., *sanctioned by law.* In (*f*) we find an adverbial to *cutting,* viz., *into halves and quarters.*

III. Arranging these elements one after the other, bringing together the nouns and attributes, the verbs and adverbs, which are co-related, we get,—

"The custom (of clipping the coin) was facilitated in England, in the early part of the reign of Edward I., by the custom (sanctioned by law) of cutting the silver penny (into halves and quarters)."

IV. As the occurrence of so many as three adverbials at the close of the sentence makes it cumbrous, we bring one of them (preferring that of *time*) to the beginning, and thus get the complete and well-balanced sentence :—

"In the early part of the reign of Edward I., the crime of clipping the coin was

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facilitated in England by the custom, sanctioned by law, of cutting the silver penny into halves and quarters."

It is important to observe here, that this process is not only based (as has been hinted) on the practice which every writer naturally, and more or less unconsciously, follows, but is also the true, the only true, counterpart of the process of analysis. Analysis breaks down a sentence into subject, predicate, objects, and adverbs. Synthesis builds up these same primary elements into a sentence. It is thus the legitimate carrying out of analysis, to which therefore it attaches quite a new value, and places beyond all question its superiority in value and utility to parsing, or the classification and syntax of single words.

This is no less evident when we come to consider the structure of complex sentences,—containing one principal predicate, and one or more subordinate predicates. As each clause in a complex sentence admits of analysis into the primary elements of a sentence, the data for each clause in synthesis might be stated with the same detail as in the case of the simple sentence given above. This, however, after sufficient practice has been given in the construction of simple sentences, is unnecessary, and would only complicate the exercise. It is better, therefore, to limit the attention, in the case of complex sentences, solely to the combining of clauses. Accordingly, in the data for the synthesis of complex sentences, the substance of each clause is stated as a simple sentence; and the pupil is required to combine these in accordance with certain prescribed relations of interdependence. In order to express these relations briefly, and to present them clearly to the eye, the system of analytic notation, described in a previous number of this journal,* has been adopted. The essential feature in that notation is, that each principal clause is indicated by a capital letter, and the subordinate clauses by corresponding small letters; the degree of subordination being further expressed by algebraic indices, while different clauses in the same degree are distinguished by co-efficients. Thus a^2 is dependent on a^1, a^2 on a^1, and a^1 on A; b^2 on b^1, and b^1 on B; c^1 on C, etc.; while two or more clauses dependent on a^2, for instance, are marked as $1a^2$, $2a^2$, $3a^2$, etc. Before proceeding to exemplify the application of this system to synthesis of complex sentences, we must premise—1st, that as in simple sentences we begin with the subject and predicate, so here we begin with the clause containing the principal subject and predicate; 2d, that we must be careful to attach each subordinate clause as nearly as possible to the word which it explains, linking them together by the proper connectives, to do which is indeed the only point of real difficulty in the exercise.

In exemplification of this, let us now take a sentence at random from Goldsmith, and having broken it down into a series of simple propositions, endeavour from these elements to reconstruct it:—

* *Museum*, No. VI. p. 181.

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$1a^1$ (*substantive*). It was proper to sell our colt at a neighbouring fair, and buy us a horse.
A. My wife proposed this.
$1a^2$ (*attributive*). The colt was grown old.
$2a^2$ (*attributive*). A horse would carry single or double upon an occasion.
$3a^2$ (*attributive*). And a horse would make a pretty appearance at church.
$4a^2$ (*attributive*). Or a horse would make a pretty appearance on a visit.
$2a^1$ (*adverbial: reason*). We were now to hold up our heads a little higher in the world.

I. We begin by writing down the principal clause (A); *My wife proposed.* In place of "this," we add the substantive clause ($1a^1$) as the object of "proposed,"—introducing it with its proper connective "that." *My wife proposed that it was proper to sell our colt at a neighbouring fair, and buy us a horse.* The next clause ($1a^2$) is attributive to "colt;" we therefore introduce it immediately after that word, *our colt, which was grown old.* The next three clauses ($2a^2$, $3a^2$, $4a^2$) are all attributive to "horse," and must therefore be connected with that word, *a horse which would carry single or double upon an occasion, and would make a pretty appearance at church or on a visit.* The only remaining clause ($2a^1$) gives the reason of all this, and must be introduced by "since," or "as." We thus get the complete sentence—

"My wife proposed that it was proper to sell our colt, which was grown old, at a neighbouring fair, and buy us a horse, which would carry single or double upon an occasion, and would make a pretty appearance at church or on a visit, as we were now to hold up our heads a little higher in the world."

II. This arrangement of the sentence, though the natural one, is open to the objection that the last clause ($2a^1$) is too far separated from the clause (A) on which it is immediately dependent,—no fewer than four other clauses coming between them. To rectify this, we may bring the adverbial clause to the beginning of the sentence, and then we have it as Goldsmith originally wrote it:

"As we were now to hold up our heads a little higher in the world, my wife proposed that it was proper to sell our colt, which was grown old, at a neighbouring fair, and buy us a horse, which would carry single or double upon an occasion, and would make a pretty appearance at church or on a visit."

As compound sentences consist merely of simple and complex clauses in combination, it is unnecessary to give separate examples of their treatment. The illustrations we have given will suffice to show that this kind of exercise compels the pupil to attend to the construction of sentences and the arrangement of their parts in a way which, under the old-fashioned system of composition, was almost, if not altogether, unattainable. We can commend the exercise to teachers on other grounds. It will not only save them and their pupils much time and fruitless labour, but will be found to excite the interest of the latter in the same way as the working out of a problem in mathematics, or as the executing of a constructive puzzle amuses children of a younger growth. The exercise, too, enables them to feel their power,—all the more that the result, if correct, is an intelligible whole.

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There is great utility, also, in the constancy with which the exercise keeps the pupil working upon a single sentence, until he has mastered its parts and their relations, and has given to it its most accurate as well as most elegant form. When this has been practised long enough to enable the pupil to understand the many nice points on which the excellence of a sentence, as to its construction, depends, then he will be able to undertake the writing of original sentences, the combining of these into paragraphs, and the composition, in the higher sense, of themes demanding continuous and concentrated thought.

W. Scott Dalgleish.

IV. SKETCH OF AFRICAN DISCOVERY.

At length the veil which for ages has hid the interior of Africa from the eyes of the civilized world is slowly being raised; and the scene disclosed to view consists not, as was once suspected, of barren wastes and sandy deserts, but of magnificent lakes, numerous streams, fertile plains, and populous towns. Three centuries and a half have passed away since Vasco de Gama doubled "the Cape of Storms," and thus completed the coast line of the continent; but it is only within the last hundred years that any great attempts have been made to penetrate to the interior, and more has been done in this way during the last fifty years than in the three previous centuries. Though the Blue Nile is no longer looked upon as the main branch of the great river of Egypt, and though in the discovery of its source Bruce had been anticipated by Portuguese adventurers two centuries earlier, still the great Scottish traveller is well entitled to stand at the head of modern African explorers, both on account of the perils and hardships he underwent, and of the effect which his discoveries had upon the public mind, as shown in the formation of the African Association.

It was during a conversation with Lord Halifax, a colleague of the great Chatham, that the idea of attempting to discover the source of the Nile—the problem which, "for the last two thousand years, had bid defiance to all travellers"—first presented itself to the mind of Bruce. In order to assist him in his undertaking, Halifax conferred upon him the office of Consul of Algiers, and he left the shores of England in 1762. After spending some time at Algiers, and in Asia Minor and Syria, he proceeded by way of the Red Sea to Abyssinia, and succeeded in reaching the source of the Blue Nile, November 1770. In returning, Bruce passed through Nubia, and had to endure the most frightful hardships. He at length, however, reached Assouan in Upper Egypt, and in 1774 arrived in England. The account of his adventures when published created the greatest interest throughout Europe. So startling were his descriptions and anecdotes, that they excited general incredulity; but the accuracy of his statements has been fully established by the researches of later travellers.

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The African Association was established in 1788, and one of the most celebrated travellers whom it sent out was Mungo Park. He had been educated for the medical profession, and had made a voyage to Sumatra as an assistant-surgeon. On his return he offered his services to the Association, and was sent out to explore the course of the Niger. He sailed from Portsmouth in May 1795, and arrived at the mouth of the Gambia in the month following. He was detained at Pisania, the British factory, for some months by a fever, but at length set out for the interior. After months of wandering and captivity, he arrived at Sego, and there first beheld the Niger. "I saw," said he, "with infinite pleasure, the great object of my mission, the long-sought-for majestic Niger, glittering in the morning sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the eastward." He traced the river downwards to the town of Silla, a distance of about seventy miles, but worn out with fatigue and sickness, and foreseeing the approach of the wet season, he was compelled reluctantly to return. After his return to England, Park practised for some time as a surgeon at Peebles, but the occupation was too quiet for his enterprising disposition, and a proposal having been made by the Government to place him at the head of another large expedition, he gladly accepted of it, and set out early in 1805. The whole party reached the Gambia in safety; but sickness broke out among them, and when they reached the Niger there were only seven men remaining out of thirty-eight. Having constructed a flat-bottomed schooner out of two old canoes, Park and his companions set out on a voyage down the river. Of his subsequent movements nothing certain is known, but a statement afterwards made by one of his guides, who accompanied the expedition part of the way, seems to have been substantially correct. It was to this effect: Park reached Timbuctoo in safety, and proceeding down the river came to Yaouri. Here he neglected to give presents to the king, and troops were sent to intercept the expedition at a narrow part of the river. The attack was made at Boussa, and the white men, trying to escape, jumped into the river and were drowned.

During the next twenty years several other attempts were made to reach the interior of Africa from points on the north and west coasts. Towards the close of 1821, Denham and Clapperton, accompanied by Dr. Oudney, setting out from Tripoli, succeeded in reaching the shores of Lake Tchad. Major Denham then pushed southward to Mandara, while Clapperton turning westward penetrated to Sackatoo, on a branch of the Niger. He met with a hearty welcome from the Sultan, but failed in obtaining from him a guide to the Niger, and he was therefore obliged to give up his design of visiting that river, and ascertaining with certainty the fate of Park. He retraced his steps therefore to Kouka; and having joined Denham there, both travellers returned to Tripoli, and arrived in England, June 1824. In the following year Captain Clapperton made another attempt to explore the Niger from the west coast. Setting out from Badagry, he succeeded in reaching Boussa, and then crossing the river proceeded through

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Kano to Sackatoo; but soon afterwards sinking under the combined effects of sickness and fatigue, he expired in the arms of his faithful attendant Richard Lander. Two years later Lander himself was commissioned by the Government to return to Africa, and trace the Niger from Boussa to its outlet, wherever that might be. Accompanied by his brother John, he followed Clapperton's last route, and reached Boussa in safety. They then commenced their voyage down the stream, and after several narrow escapes at length reached a Liverpool vessel lying in the Brass river, one of the outlets of the Niger, and thus completed their great discovery.

Soon after Lander's return a company was formed at Liverpool for the purpose of opening a trade with Central Africa, by means of the Niger. Two vessels sailed from England, July 1832; one ascended the river as far as Rabba, while the other reached the important town of Fundah, which stands on the Tchadda, a tributary of the Niger. This large feeder received its name from an opinion then prevalent, that it had its source in Lake Tchad; and it was reserved for Dr. Barth some years later to show the incorrectness of this opinion, and to determine the real course of this important stream.

In the year 1849, Mr. Richardson, who was then living at Malta, made an offer to the English Government to proceed to Bornou, and negotiate a treaty of commerce. The offer was accepted, and Dr. Barth and Dr. Overweg were added to the mission. They started from Tripoli, April 2, 1850, and proceeded southward through Mourzook. Before reaching Bornou the travellers separated, agreeing to meet at Kouka, and Barth turning south-west arrived at Kano. He describes the country round Kano as being of a cheerful and fruitful appearance; numerous trees adorned the landscape; beautiful cattle, mostly white, assembled near the wells; and well-cultivated fields of cotton, tobacco, and corn gave evidence of the industry of the inhabitants. Turning his course eastward to Kouka, he learned the death of Mr. Richardson, who had sunk under the influence of the climate while still on his way to the capital of Bornou. The two surviving friends met at Kouka, and then in company visited the shores of Lake Tchad. Dr. Overweg spent seven weeks on its waters, visiting the numerous islands with which it is studded.

Towards the end of May 1851, Barth commenced his journey south to the Adamawa country. He passed the furthest point reached by Denham, leaving the Mandara mountains to the east. The country was everywhere of the most extraordinary fertility, abounding in fruitful fields, populous villages, and beautiful cattle. Cotton, indigo, sugar, ivory, bees'-wax, and hides were the chief products of the district. On the 18th of June was made what Dr. Barth considers his most important discovery,—he arrived at the banks of the Benue or Tchadda. At the point where he came upon it the river was 800 yards broad, and was joined by an affluent coming from the south called the Faro, which was 600 yards wide. It is along this branch of the Niger, Dr. Barth maintains, that "European influence and commerce will penetrate into the very heart of the continent."

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With the help of three rude canoes which were found on the banks, our traveller and his companions crossed the river and its feeder, and came to Yola, which is only 8° from the equator. He had now penetrated 350 miles farther south than Denham, and would have extended his researches to the equator had not the obstacles met with proved insurmountable. He returned therefore to Bornou, and along with Dr. Overweg visited the countries that lie on the north and east of Lake Tchad. Barth afterwards set out to visit the kingdom of Baghirmi, and reached Masena, the capital of that country. On returning to Kouka he was met by Overweg, who, however, only survived the meeting one month. Having received supplies of money from England, he paid a visit to Timbuctoo, and dwelt there seven months. Timbuctoo was formerly a place of very great importance, being the grand entrepôt of caravans proceeding from Guinea to Tripoli. Since the development of the coast trade its prosperity has somewhat declined, but it is still a large and prosperous town. Dr. Barth arrived in London in 1855.

It would appear from the discoveries of Barth and other travellers that the Great Sahara is by no means the frightful desert it is sometimes represented to be; but that, on the contrary, the remark attributed to Strabo, in which the northern coast of Africa is compared to a panther's skin, might very fairly be applied to the district lying between the Atlas mountains and Lake Tchad; for the desert is dotted over with fertile oases and populous towns.

We must now briefly notice the discoveries of M. Du Chaillu in the equatorial parts of Western Africa. Considerable doubt has at different times been thrown upon the statements of this traveller, but there is every reason to believe that they are all substantially correct, and the utmost that can be fairly said against him is, that his descriptions are perhaps a little highly coloured. The scene of M. Du Chaillu's adventures lies in the neighbourhood of the Gaboon river, and his explorations extended over a period of four years ending with 1859. The Gaboon enters the Atlantic just north of the equator; and to the north of it, and separated from it by a peninsula, is Corisco Bay, into which flow the rivers Muni and Moondah. The Muni was ascended as far as the Sierra del Crystal, which runs parallel with the coast, and consists of at least three ranges, the second of which coincides with 11° east longitude. The ranges are of no great elevation, varying from 500 to 2000 feet. Beyond the Sierra del Crystal live the Fans, a tribe of cannibals. They are a fine warlike race, and can work in iron and pottery, and have some slight knowledge of agriculture. To the east of the Fans is the Osheba country, and the people there, as well as the tribes beyond them, appear to be all cannibals. M. Du Chaillu next ascended the Moondah, which seems to be of no great length, and is described as "miserable and unhealthy." It consists in fact of one great swamp, at the back of which, however, is a high country producing great quantities of bar-wood, used as a red dye. It is obtained from the trunk of a large graceful tree, which has abundant branches, small bright-green leaves, and a beautiful smooth reddish-coloured bark.

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The most important discovery, however, made on this part of the coast was the existence of a large navigable river called the Ogobai or Agobay. It consists of two branches, the Agobay proper and the Okanda; the former rising on the southern and the latter on the northern side of a chain of mountains which, springing from the coast range, runs to an unknown distance into the interior. This immense chain attains in some places an elevation of 12,000 feet, and it is the opinion of Du Chaillu that it extends as far as the *Montes Lunæ* of Burton and Speke. The Agobay was traced to a distance of 350 miles from the coast, and it had there a breadth of between 300 and 400 yards. Its navigation is, however, interrupted about 11° east longitude, where it breaks through the equatorial chain of mountains, and the cataract has been named, in honour of the Empress of the French, the *Eugenie Falls*. Soon afterwards the river is joined by the Okanda; this stream was not visited, but, according to the native accounts, it is quite as large as the other branch. The Agobay next throws off a channel which forms the river Nazareth, and then receives the Anengue, which drains Anengue lake—a sheet of water about ten miles wide, dotted with beautifully wooded islands. Soon afterwards several branches are thrown off to the right and form the "Delta of the Agobay," which extends from the mouth of the Nazareth, lat. 0° 41′ south, to that of the Fernand Vaz, lat. 1° 17′ south. This tract, being flooded in the rainy season, is covered with immense forests of palm, and has no inhabitants except wild beasts, reptiles, and mosquitos. Near the coast the Agobay receives another stream from the south called the Rembo.

It will thus be seen that the Agobay presents an important opening into the interior of Africa, as it is navigable for light vessels far above the Eugenie Falls. It is probable also that the Congo rises somewhere on the southern slope of the equatorial chain of mountains. The natives of these parts are all very fond of trade, and the chief exports consist of ivory, bar-wood, india-rubber, and ebony. Animal life is not so abundant here as in Southern Africa, but monkeys appear in their most perfect forms. Besides the gorilla, there are the nshiego, or nest-building ape, and the kooloo-kamba, which perhaps in appearance and intelligence approaches nearest to man. The lion is never seen; and next to the gorilla, the leopard is probably the most ferocious animal. Besides these, elephants, buffaloes and wild hogs are met with, as well as many new and beautiful birds.

Let us now turn to the important discoveries made by Dr. Livingstone in South Africa. He left home in 1840, and arrived at the Cape after a voyage of three months. He thence proceeded to Algoa Bay, and crossing the colony came into the country of the Bechuanas. Here he spent nine years in medical and missionary labours, residing chiefly at Kuruman and Kolobeng. Soon after arriving in Africa, he devoted six months to the exclusive study of the language and customs of the native tribes, and he thus became possessed of knowledge which was of immense service to him afterwards. In 1849 he, in company with Messrs. Oswell and Murray, visited the shores of Lake Ngami,

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they being the first Europeans who had beheld its waters. Some time afterwards, Livingstone succeeded in reaching the banks of the Zambesi; but his great journey was commenced in 1852. Setting out from Cape Town, after sending his family to England, he travelled northward through the colony in the heavy lumbering Cape waggon, drawn by ten oxen. Passing through the territories of the Griquas and Bechuanas, he came to the great Kalahari Desert, "which is remarkable for little water and very considerable vegetation." Skirting the borders of this desert, and passing to the eastward of Ngami, he at length reached Linyanti, on the Chobe, the capital town of the Makololo. He spent several months at this place, and was treated with great kindness by Sekeletu, the chief of the tribe; but he determined to push on and penetrate if possible to some point on the west coast, so that he might thus open a channel of trade between the Portuguese on the coast and the tribes of the interior.

In November 1853, Dr. Livingstone left Linyanti, accompanied by twenty-seven Makololo. They passed down the Chobe to its confluence with the Leeambye or Zambesi, and then ascended that river as far as its junction with the Leeba, though their course was often interrupted by rapids and cataracts. Passing up the Leeba they reached Lake Dilolo, and then struck across the country in a north-westerly direction. And here the only vexatious part of their journey was experienced; as the travellers neared the coast, they found that European influence, and slave-dealing especially, had taught the natives craft and dishonesty; and Livingstone and his companions had need of all their caution and firmness to prevent being imposed upon. At length, however, they reached Loanda in safety, and met with a cordial welcome from Mr. Gabriel, the English commissioner, who resided there.

On their return journey Dr. Livingstone had leisure to examine the country through which he passed. Were it not for the fever, he thinks Angola would be a very agreeable province; and he considers it capable of yielding as much raw material for the manufactures of England as an equal extent of territory in the cotton states of North America. On returning to Dilolo, he was informed that two streams flow out of this lake in opposite directions; one south, forming the Leeba; and the other north, into the Kasai, and thence into the Congo. He regretted not being able at the time to verify the latter part of the statement, as he was then unwell; he saw no reason, however, to doubt the testimony of the natives. As the Doctor continued his return journey until he reached the mouth of the Zambesi at Quillimane, he had a good opportunity of forming some idea of this noble river. From some Arabs belonging to Zanzibar, whom he met in the interior, he learned that the Leeambye has its source in Lake Tanganyika. This is highly probable, as it is now generally admitted that this lake has an outlet to the south, and in the rainy season is no doubt connected with the Nyassi. From Tanganyika the river flows south-west and is joined by the Leeba. From this point to the junction of the Chobe extends the Barotse valley, which has a breadth of about 100 miles, and bears a considerable resemblance to the valley of the

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Nile. Like the Nile, the Zambesi is annually flooded, and from a similar cause, "which," to use the words of Sir R. Murchison in his late annual address, "is now generally attributed, not to the melting of the snows of the higher chain, but, in far the greater part, to the fall of the equatorial rains on the interior spongy upper basins, which, when supersaturated, must fill to overflowing the lakes into which the waters pass, the periodicity being determined by the passage of the sun over the equator." The Barotse valley is exceedingly fertile, two crops of corn can be raised in a year; and although the fever is certainly a drawback, yet it is almost the only disease prevalent there.

After returning to Linyanti, Livingstone determined if possible to find out a practicable route to the east coast. A "picho" or consultation having been held among the Makololo, it was decided that it would be most advisable to follow the north bank of the Zambesi. It was about this time that, from some old copies of the *Times* which had been sent him from England, Dr. Livingstone learned Sir R. Murchison's views respecting the structure of the African continent. Curiously enough, the Doctor had himself arrived at the same opinion from observations which he had made during his late journey, and he naturally felt a little chagrined at having been thus anticipated in his discovery: "In his easy chair," he writes, "he had forestalled me by three years, though I had been working hard through jungle, marsh, and fever, and since the light dawned on my mind at Dilolo, had been cherishing the pleasing delusion that I should be the first to suggest the idea that the interior of Africa was a watery plateau of less elevation than the flanking hill ranges."

But Livingstone was now on the eve of another discovery, in which he was forestalled by no one. In November 1855, he set out on his journey to the east coast, and shortly afterwards came in sight of the magnificent "Victoria Falls." These falls are caused by an immense crack in the basaltic rock, which forms the bed of the river; and into this crack the Zambesi, which has here a breadth of 1000 yards, pours its waters. The fissure is about 80 feet wide at the top, but at a depth of 100 feet, the width is contracted into a space of 15 or 20 yards; the narrow channel of the river is then continued away to the left, through the hills, for a distance of thirty or forty miles. From the abyss into which the water pours itself, five columns of vapour rose to the clouds, and were visible at a distance of five or six miles. "The whole scene was extremely beautiful; the banks and islands dotted over the river are adorned with sylvan vegetation of great variety of colour and form. At the period of our visit, several trees were spangled over with blossoms. Trees have each their own physiognomy. There, towering over all, stands the burly baobab, each of whose enormous arms would form the trunk of a large tree, beside groups of graceful palms which, with their feathery-shaped leaves depicted on the sky, lend their beauty to the scene." As the river was low, Livingstone was able to reach an island on the edge of the falls, and could thus obtain a nearer view. "In looking down into the

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fissure on the right of the island, one sees nothing but a dense white cloud, which at the time we visited the spot had two bright rainbows on it. From the cloud rushed up a great jet of vapour exactly like steam, and it mounted 200 or 300 feet high; there condensing, it changed its hue to that of dark smoke, and came back in a constant shower which soon wetted us to the skin. This shower falls chiefly on the opposite side of the fissure, and a few yards back from the lip there stands a straight edge of evergreen trees, whose leaves are always wet. From their roots a number of little rills run back into the gulf; but as they flow down the steep wall there, the column of vapour, in its ascent, licks them up clean off the rock, and away they mount again."

Our explorers now crossed the mountains in a north-easterly direction and again struck upon the Zambesi, near the junction of the Kafue. They then travelled along the north bank of the river, though with great difficulty, owing to the rank luxuriance of the vegetation. Large game, including elephants, buffaloes, zebras, and antelopes, was here very abundant. Below Tete—which stands at a distance of 300 miles from the sea—the Zambesi offers no obstacle to the passage of light vessels; and the travellers, embarking in three large canoes, arrived safely at Quillimane, May 1856. In December of the following year Dr. Livingstone landed in England.

It is well known that this enterprising traveller has again returned to Africa, and is now actively exploring in the neighbourhood of his former researches. In 1859 he discovered Lake Shirwa, which is drained by the Shire, a feeder of the Zambesi. According to native accounts, this lake is separated from the Nyassi by a strip of land only four or five miles broad. The Shirwa is deep, contains numerous inhabited islands, and is surrounded by lofty green mountains. The latest accounts from the Zambesi tell us that Dr. Livingstone is still exploring this lake, which seems to be about 200 miles long and about 50 broad.

We have already mentioned Lake Tanganyika. A few years ago it was thought that this was the name of a large lake extending from the equator to the fourteenth parallel of south latitude. The subject attracted the notice of the Royal Geographical Society, and Captain Burton was sent out to explore the lake. Burton invited Captain Speke to join him in the expedition, and they left Zanzibar June 1857. Having crossed to the mainland and formed a caravan, the travellers soon came to the great Coast Range of Eastern Africa. Crossing this ridge they descended gradually into the interior and arrived at Kaseh, the great emporium of the trade of Eastern Africa. After staying here some time, the caravan continued its course westward, and at length reached the eastern horn of a crescent-shaped range of mountains, to which the name *Montes Lunæ*, or "Mountains of the Moon," was given. From the summit of this range the travellers first beheld Lake Tanganyika. It is about 300 miles long, and from 30 to 40 miles broad: the waters are sweet, and abound in fish; and the shores are densely populated by negro tribes. The notion that this lake extended over a space of fourteen degrees of latitude, seems to have arisen from the fact that

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there are two lakes in this region besides the Shirwa—the Tanganyika and the Nyassi,—and that probably during the rainy season the three lakes have communication with each other. Of Lake Nyassi very little is at present known, though the Portuguese were acquainted with its existence as early as the sixteenth century.

On returning to Kaseh, Captain Burton and his companion were informed by the natives that another large lake lay to the north, in the neighbourhood of the equator. This was subsequently visited by Captain Speke—Burton being detained at Kaseh by a severe illness—and was by him named the Victoria Nyanza. From all he had heard and seen, he was convinced that this lake contained the true source of the Nile; for the natives spoke of a broad, deep river, called the Kivira, flowing out of its northern extremity, while the White Nile had been traced to within three degrees of the equator, and in a direction pointing to the Nyanza. Scarcity of provisions compelled him, however, to return without settling this interesting point; but in his second expedition he has been entirely successful.

On the 1st day of October 1860, Speke, accompanied by Captain Grant, started again from the east coast of Africa. At first they met with many delays and difficulties, owing to wars raging among the native tribes, so that when they were heard of twelve months later, they had only reached Kaseh. Turning now to the north, they determined to follow the western shore of the lake, as the eastern shore is inhabited by the Masai race, a fierce and warlike tribe, through whom no traveller can make his way. Three kingdoms lie on the western shore, Karagwe, Uganda, and Unyoro. From the king of Karagwe the travellers met with the greatest kindness; the people of Uganda, from their sprightliness and good taste, Speke calls "the French" of those parts; but the king of Unyoro is described as "a morose, suspicious, churlish creature." The northern shore of the Nyanza was found to be almost coincident with the equator. The lake is about 150 miles in length, and the Nile leaves it with a current 150 yards broad. As the stream leaves the Nyanza, it leaps over a fall 12 feet in height, and there must be several other cataracts in its course, as its total descent from the Nyanza to Khartum is 2400 feet.

Captain Speke traced the course of the Nile as far as the second parallel of north latitude; the river here takes a bend to the west, and flows through Lake Luta Nzige; our travellers, however, did not follow this part of its course, but striking across the chord of the bend for a distance of about 70 miles, came again upon the river a little south of Gondokoro. Soon afterwards they met with Mr. Baker, who supplied them liberally with provisions and money, and on reaching Khartum the news speedily flew to England that the source of the Nile was discovered. Captains Speke and Grant arrived in this country last June.

It will thus be seen that the problem which taxed the energies of Bruce exactly a century ago is the same which, in its complete solution, has crowned the efforts of the latest explorers in the African continent.

W. Lawson.

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V. FRENCH LEXICOGRAPHY.

The historical Dictionary undertaken by the *Académie Française* is a grand idea, and, *when it is finished*, we have no doubt that it will reflect the greatest credit upon the compilers of it; but how many ages must elapse before the *eighty* volumes are published, especially according to the slow rate at which it is proceeding! In the meanwhile, M. Littré, after having devoted twenty years of assiduous labour to the preparation of a similar work, steps in to supply the deficiency which the *Dictionnaire Historique* was intended to fill up; and as a considerable portion of his own book is now in the press, whilst five *livraisons* * are actually before us, we may safely anticipate the speedy completion of an enterprise which will mark quite a new era in the annals of lexicography.

If we stop, in the first place, to notice the *material* features of M. Littré's dictionary, the following results strike us at once. The entire work will consist of two large quarto volumes, containing together between 350 and 400 sheets, or from 2800 to 3200 pages. The *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, which is at present regarded as the standard authority of its kind, includes only 1800 pages; so that the difference in favour of M. Littré is of no less than 1000 or 1400 pages. If, besides, we take into consideration that each page of M. Littré's volume comprises 11,000 letters on an average, that is to say, 3000 more than the corresponding space in the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, we are warranted in affirming that the work we are now noticing will be, when terminated, more than double the size of its rival.

We must account for this enormous difference; and this leads us, in the second place, to examine the plan adopted by M. Littré.

The object of the academicians in publishing their dictionary † was merely to give a list of words used for the time being, both in conversation and in productions of a *bonâ fide* literary character. They neglected, as entirely foreign to their purpose, archaisms on the one hand, and neologisms on the other, excluding, moreover, a number of expressions which, although thoroughly French, have not yet received the sanction—rather arbitrary, we are inclined to think—of the tribunal whose courts are held at the *Palais Mazarin*. M. Littré has, on the contrary, admitted without distinction all these words; he takes care to explain the different meanings of each expression, to give its history, to discuss its etymology, to elucidate, when needful, the grammatical problems connected with it, to illustrate the synonyms, to supply a chronological list of quotations. Thus we see how it is that the proportions of his dictionary have reached far beyond those of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*.

In his preface, our author begins by justifying the plan he has followed:—

* *Dictionnaire de la Langue Française.* Par E. Littré, de l'Institut. 4°. Parts 1-5, pp. lix.-736. Paris and London: L. Hachette and Co.

† The first edition of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie* was issued in 1694, the sixth in 1836.

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1. *Nomenclature.*—The only words he omits are those which have become quite obsolete, and even here he gives a place to all the archaisms which occur in classical writers, and to the most remarkable terms supplied by authors of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. He has also taken care to render as complete as possible the vocabulary of historical and scientific expressions.

2. *Classification and meaning of the words.*—When a word has a variety of significations, the arrangement of these is by no means arbitrary. A close inspection of each paragraph will show that one meaning has naturally led to another, and that there is a kind of genealogy of which the starting-point must, and may be strictly, ascertained. The compilers of the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, having so prepared a work for common, every-day use, were perhaps justified, at least to a certain extent, in rejecting the logical plan we have just been alluding to; thus, when we open their volume at the word *croissant*, we find the substantive or participial-substantive defined as *la figure de la nouvelle lune jusqu'à son premier quartier*. Now, it is certain that *croissant* is only the participle of the verb *croître* used as a substantive; and it remains to be discovered how that participle has come to express one of the appearances of the moon. But when we consult classical authors, we see *croissant* taken in the sense of *accroissement*, and as, during its increase, if we may employ such an expression, the moon affects the shape with which we are all familiar, this, in its turn, has been called *un croissant*. Now, by extension, instruments or other objects, having the form described, have received the name *croissant*, etc., etc. This example, selected from a variety of similar ones, well serve to illustrate the law of logical classification adopted by M. Littré; and it is, we believe, scarcely necessary to prove that a strict adherence to this law is essential for those who would study the language in a thoroughly scientific manner.

3. *Pronunciation.*—This, like everything else, has undergone a number of modifications in course of years. We are told that a gentleman who, during a long lifetime, had constantly frequented the *Théâtre Français*, observed how differently the actors of the present day pronounced certain words as compared with what the custom was sixty years ago. M. Littré notices the general tendency which prevails of taking spelling as the guide for pronunciation; and he observes, that in a language like the French, where orthography is generally in accordance with etymology, such a tendency is extremely to be regretted. For instance, the old adjective, *altre*, is derived from the Latin *alter*, and preserves under this form its etymological spelling. But the people who made use of that word did not sound the consonant *l*, and pronounced *altre* as if it had been written *âtre*. When, at a later period, the combination *al* was replaced by *au*, this originated in an attempt to modify the spelling so as to suit the pronunciation; but nothing was gained thereby, and one conventionalism (*au*) was merely substituted in the place of another (*ô*). M. Littré likewise remarks on the greater freedom which existed formerly respecting the hiatus; whilst we pronounce *les Etats-z-unis, les morts-z-et les blessés*, our forefathers pronounced *les Etâ unis, les mor et les blessés;* and the

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Abbé d'Olivet, one of the most famous grammarians of the last century, said that the affectation of joining on one word to the next denoted either a pedant or a provincial.

4. *Quotations taken from Classical or other Authors.*—The custom of admitting, as part of a work like the present, quotations from various authors, seems in France, at least, of comparatively recent date. Richelet was the first who adopted it, but very sparingly. The great writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and the most eminent of our contemporaries, are quoted by M. Littré for the purpose of exemplifying the usual signification of the different words. Voltaire, who, more than one hundred years ago, entertained the plan of collecting and classifying a number of quotations to illustrate the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie Française*, has very aptly remarked (letter to Duclos, Aug. 11, 1760), "that a dictionary without quotations is like a skeleton." Besides the pleasure we must always feel in reading a choice extract from some well-known writer, such examples often give the opportunity of elucidating an historical fact, or of explaining a dubious allusion.

5. *Remarks.*—Under this head our grammarian has discussed—1. A number of grammatical niceties referring to the language of the present day; 2. Some peculiarities to be found in classical authors, and which are now discarded; 3. Proverbs and proverbial expressions.

6. *Definitions and Synonyms.*—If we consider the absurdity of some of the definitions proposed in the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, we must be led to suppose that the art of defining accurately is extremely difficult. It ought, moreover, to be remembered that a definition, in order to be exact, cannot generally be worded in a concise manner; and M. Littré has very wisely preferred perspicuity to laconism in explaining the meaning of the various words admitted in his dictionary. The question of synonyms is closely allied with that of definitions, and has been dwelt upon by the learned lexicographer as far as it was necessary.

7. *Historical Quotations.*—Whilst illustrating the *present* signification of each expression, M. Littré has given his quotations in logical sequence; that is to say, he has begun with the primary meaning, and shown how the association of ideas or other metaphysical laws have led from one construction to the next. But, in addition to this, he has placed under the title *historique* a series of examples, arranged in chronological order, and containing extracts from the most celebrated writers of the tenth century (Chanson d'Eulalie, Fragments de Valenciennes); the eleventh (Chanson de Roland, poem of Saint Alexis); the twelfth (Robert Wace, Benoist de Sainte Maure, Sermons of Saint Bernard, Chansons de geste, works of the Sire de Couci, translations from the Bible); the thirteenth (Villehardouin, Joinville, the fabliaux, Roman de la Rose, Roman du Renard, various chronicles, etc.); the fourteenth (Baudoin de Sebourg, Oresme, le Roy Modus, le Ménagier de Paris, Bercheure, Marchant, the Chronicles of Saint Denis); the fifteenth (Froissart, Chartier, Christine de Pisan, Charles d'Orléans, Deschamps, Villon, Commines, Patelin, Jehan de Saintré, etc.); the sixteenth (Rabelais, Amyot, Calvin, Montaigne, Paré, D'Aubigné, etc., etc.) These quotations are particularly suggestive, and an example or two will show that, in some cases, they give us the only clue we have

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to the true meaning of a word hitherto considered as either obscure or entirely unaccountable. Let us take, first, the substantive *danger*. Persons imperfectly acquainted with the origin of the French language have been tempted to derive this word from the Latin *damnum*, through the form *damniarium*, whence *danger* or *dangier*. But, to begin with, the idea of *damage* is not sufficiently akin to that of *peril*, to justify our connecting them together in consequence of a mere surmise, and independently of the authority supplied by positive texts. Moreover, if we refer to the vocabulary of jurisprudence, we find the word *danger* used in the sense, not of *peril*, but of the *prohibition* which the exercise of power implies. Finally, there are two decisive objections against the supposed derivation of *danger* from *damnum*—1*st*, the primitive word is, not *danger*, but *dongier* or *donger*; 2*d*, the primitive meaning is, not *peril*, but *power*, *authority*, and consequently *prohibition*, the *act of forbidding*. Now, the former objection is removed if we admit that the real genealogy is *dominium—dominiarum —dongier*. We know, besides, that in the old French, *o* and *on* or *un*, were often changed into *a* and *an* or *en*, respectively (thus *dame* from *domina*; *damoiseau* from *dominicellus*; *volenté* from *voluntas*; *cuens* from *comes*); the equivalence of *dongier* and *danger* is therefore perfectly accounted for. The latter objection, referring to the meaning of the substantive, is also completely removed, when we find that about the fourteenth or fifteenth century the expression *estre au danger de quelqu'un* signified equally *to be under any person's authority*, and also *to be in peril on account of any person's cruelty or violence*.

The substantive *dé* is another example of the way in which *historical* quotations can alone help us to the exact meaning of certain expressions. Must *dé*, a thimble, be considered as the same word as *dé*, a dice? No: let us turn to old texts, and we shall find the latter substantive always and uniformly spelt *dé*; whilst the former, as we go back towards the twelfth century, appears under the form *déel*, derived by contraction from the Latin *digitale*.

8. *Patois*.—The knowledge of the *patois* is often important, because it supplies us with the real sense of a word or phrase, which, in its present usual form, cannot be etymologically explained. Thus, the substantive *lierre* has preserved its correct spelling in certain provinces where the peasants say *hierre* (*hedera*), instead of using the barbarism resulting from the amalgamation of the article with the noun.

9. *Etymology*.—This forms one of the most interesting features in M. Littré's dictionary. The advanced state of philological science has dispelled the fanciful explanations put forward by Ménage and other *savants* of bygone days, when mere ingenuity prevailed, leading to conjectures sometimes happy, but oftener erroneous. We can now appeal to positive facts; and, in cases which still remain doubtful, our author distinctly says so, preferring to leave the particular problem unsolved, rather than to propose solutions which would, after all, be only hypothetical.

We have thus given our readers an idea, not only of M. Littré's preface, but of the plan which he has adopted in the compilation of his dictionary. Under the title, *Coup d'œil sur l'histoire de la langue*

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Française, he further adds an excellent *résumé*, which will enable the student to find, so to say, a satisfactory reason for all the philological details embodied in the work itself. This introductory disquisition is divided into the following chapters:—1. On the grammatical rules of the old French language; 2. On the old spelling and pronunciation; 3. On the rules of the old versification; 4. On the dialects and patois; 5. On the Romance languages; 6. A glance at the history of the French language; 7. A sketch of the history of French literature. We are glad to hear that both M. Littrê's preface, and the supplementary essay just referred to, will shortly be published in a separate form, together with the three admirable articles devoted to the *dictionnaire historique* by M. Saint-Beuve in the columns of the *Constitutionnel*. Even those persons who recoil before the thoughts of perusing two large quarto volumes, will read with pleasure and profit, as we have done, the most philosophical treatise on French grammar and lexicography that has ever been sent from the press.

GUSTAVE MASSON.

VI. VULGAR FRACTIONS.

THE principle of the following suggestions for teaching the theory of vulgar fractions by reference to a *concrete* unit, may have occurred to some of our readers; yet, as the method is not explained, in all its applications, in the ordinary text-books of arithmetic, and as we have always found it peculiarly advantageous, we venture to offer these brief notes on the subject, in the hope that they may be profitable to other teachers. For the method here detailed will be found to possess more attraction, as well as to secure for a teacher a greater lucidity than can be gained by the more ordinary explanations by abstract numbers.

The concrete unit most easy of adaptation for this purpose is a straight line taken to represent a unit of lineal measure.

Thus, assume the line AB to represent a unit of length.

The pupils must be made to understand that if it be divided into any number of equal parts, say five, each of those parts (*e.g.*, A*a*) is called "one-fifth" of the whole, and is represented by the symbol $\frac{1}{5}$; that any two, three, etc., of such parts will accordingly be two-, three-, etc., fifths of AB, or $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, etc., of the unit. The unit itself will be represented by $\frac{5}{5}$ or 1. Hence the symbol $\frac{3}{5}$ implies that a unit of length (or 1, if considered in the abstract) is divided into *five* equal parts, of which *three* are taken.

The next step is to explain the meaning of the different kinds of fractions; as proper, improper, mixed quantities, etc. These, however, do not here seem to call for any special remarks. We shall therefore proceed to apply our principle to several cases.

1. A fraction represents a division sum, or the quotient of the numerator divided by the denominator. We have seen how the symbol $\frac{3}{4}$ implies a unit to be divided into 4 equal parts, of which 3 are taken;

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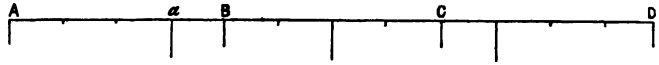
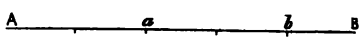
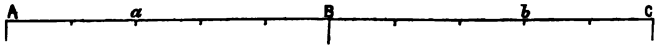
but the same symbol represents the result of the division of 3 units by 4:—Let AB, BC, CD, represent 3 units of length. From our definition,



the portion Aa is $\frac{3}{4}$ of the unit AB; but if the whole three units, or AD, be divided into four equal parts, Aa is clearly one of such parts; hence $\frac{3}{4}$ of AB (one unit) = $\frac{1}{4}$ of AD (three units).

2. To multiply a fraction by an integer; or, prove that $\frac{3}{5} \times 2 = \frac{6}{5}$. By reference to the figure, Aa is $\frac{3}{5}$ of the unit AB, and twice that length is Ab, or $\frac{6}{5}$ of AB. Similarly, $\frac{3}{5} \times 4 = \frac{12}{5} = 1 + \frac{7}{5}$; for here,





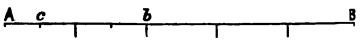
as before, Aa is $\frac{3}{5}$ of the unit AB. To repeat this quantity four times, we require three more "fifths" of another unit BC; so that Ab is eight fifths ($\frac{8}{5}$). From this we see that $\frac{8}{5} = 1 + \frac{3}{5}$ (or usually written $1\frac{3}{5}$).

This example also shows that a fraction represents a division sum, for 1 and $\frac{3}{5}$ are the same result as is obtained by dividing 8 units by 5, whose quotient is 1 with remainder 3, which is indivisible by 5, and therefore represented by the symbol $\frac{3}{5}$.

3. To divide a fraction by an integer, or prove,

$$\frac{2}{5} \div 4 = \frac{2}{5 \times 4} = \frac{2}{20} = \frac{1}{10}.$$

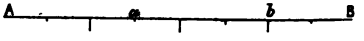
Now $\frac{2}{5}$ of a unit $\div$ 4 means that Ab (see fig.) is to be divided into 4 equal parts. If, therefore, we bisect each of these fifths, Ac is



$\frac{1}{4}$ of Ab, or the quotient of $\frac{2}{5}$ of the unit divided by 4. Now we get the same result if the whole unit AB be divided into 4 × 5, or 20 equal parts (*i.e.* if each of its fifth parts be subdivided into 4 equal parts), and two such twentieth parts be taken, *i.e.* $\frac{2}{20}$.

4. The result is the same whether the numerator be multiplied or the denominator divided by any the same quantity. Or prove,

$$\frac{3 \times 2}{8} = \frac{3}{\frac{8}{2}}$$



Here Aa = $\frac{3}{8}$ of the unit AB; and Ab = $\frac{3}{8} \times 2$: but if the unit be divided into half—8, or 4 equal parts, then Ab would be represented by $\frac{3}{4}$ of AB. Therefore

$$\frac{3 \times 2}{8} = \frac{3}{8 \div 2} = \frac{3}{\frac{8}{2}} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

5. From these examples it will appear that if a fraction have both numerator and denominator, either multiplied or divided by any the same quantity, its value remains unaffected. For, from cases 2 and 3, we see that $\frac{2 \times 2}{3 \times 2}$ means the fraction $\frac{2}{3}$ to be multiplied by 2, and then the product divided by 2; after which opposite processes, the fraction

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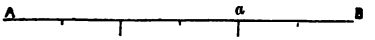
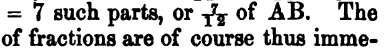
must evidently remain the same. But the truth will also be manifest from the following illustration:—Let Aa be $\frac{2}{3}$ of AB. Now $\frac{2\times2}{3\times2} = \frac{4}{6}$. This fraction implies



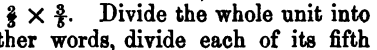
that the unit is divided into twice as many parts as before, but twice as many taken; while both fractions (see fig.) represent the same portion Aa of the unit AB.

6. In order to *compare* the relative value of fractions, it is clear that unless we have some relation between their denominators, or the "size" of the parts into which the unit is divided, it is impossible to do so. Let AB be divided into 3 equal parts, any one of them, Aa, is represented by $\frac{1}{3}$, and if the unit be divided into 4 equal parts, any such part, Ab, is known as $\frac{1}{4}$. Unless, however, we know what relation Ab bears to Aa, it is evident they cannot be compared. Divide the whole unit into 12 (*i.e.*, 3×4) equal parts; Ab will contain 3, and Aa 4, such parts, and will be represented by the fractions $\frac{3}{12}$ and $\frac{4}{12}$ respectively, while their sum Aa + Ab = 7 such parts, or $\frac{7}{12}$ of AB. The rules for addition and subtraction of fractions are of course thus immediately deducible, and admit of direct explanation from these remarks.

7. To prove $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{5} = \frac{6}{15}$: or in words, to find the value of two-thirds of three-fifths of a unit. Let Aa = $\frac{3}{5}$ of the unit AB. Now, if we can divide Aa into 3 equal parts and take 2 of them, these would be represented by $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{5}$ of a unit, or $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{5}$. Divide the whole unit into 15 (*i.e.*, 3×5) equal parts; in other words, divide each of its fifth parts into 3, then Aa will contain 9 such parts, and be represented by $\frac{9}{15}$; and if we take 6 such parts, or Ab, this will clearly be $\frac{2}{3}$ of Aa, or $\frac{6}{15}$ of the whole unit AB. Therefore $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{5} = \frac{2\times3}{3\times5} = \frac{6}{15}$.



8. Prove $\frac{2}{3} \div \frac{4}{5} = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{5}{4} = \frac{10}{12} = \frac{5}{6}$. Here we want to divide $\frac{2}{3}$ of a unit by *one-fifth part* of 4. Now, if we divide $\frac{2}{3}$ of the unit (Aa) by the *whole* quantity 4, the quotient will clearly be five times as small (viz., Ab) as if it were divided by only *one-fifth part* of 4. So that the portion of the unit represented by $\frac{2}{3} \div \frac{4}{5}$ will be 5 times greater than Ab, viz., Ac = $\frac{5}{6}$ = $\frac{10}{12}$ of the unit AB.



The simple examples we have here given will sufficiently illustrate the method we wish to advocate, and show how teachers may extend it to other more complicated cases.

GEORGE HENSLOW.

VII. WAS NERO A MONSTER?

TRUTH and paradox are frequently united; and there are in fact few great truths in any science which have not at first appeared in a paradoxical form. On the other hand, the love of Truth and that of Paradox are two distinctly opposite tendencies: for he who searches

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for the former, searches for it for its own sake; while speakers and writers affecting the latter are actuated by a desire for creating astonishment, and by astonishment admiration. To writers on historical, as on other subjects, the imputation of motives is always as unwise as it is frequently unfair; but those who deal freely in paradoxical views and arguments, at all events lay themselves open to such an imputation. Thus, when Mr. Merivale appeals to the fairness of the readers of his own History and that of Tacitus, as the true estimate of the character of the Emperor Tiberius, we are at once ready to accord the calm consideration he demands; but when a similar view of the hermit of Capreae is propounded by an avowed starter of paradoxes, like M. Adolf Stahr, many will be inclined to hesitate on the threshold of the inquiry. A recent writer in the *Cornhill Magazine*, whose identity is not concealed under the initials of G. H. L., in an attempt to vindicate the fame of the Emperor Nero from the aspersions which historians and the public have cast upon it, comes before us with almost judicial grandeur. He warns his readers not to expect a playful paradox from the title of his essay, *Was Nero a Monster?* Without stating why, if his intention was not a playful paradox, he should not have equally avoided a playful title indicative thereof, he proceeds to announce his real intention. It is to prove that for a rational, inquisitive mind there is no evidence whatever in support of the capital charges on which the popular and hitherto universal view of the character of Nero is founded. He accordingly selects four of the principal charges against Nero, viz., the burning of Rome, and the murders of Britannicus, Agrippina, and Octavia, and conceives that having disproved these, the rest will follow.

Now it may be remarked at the outset, that if a man is accused of say forty murders, to disprove four does not necessarily disprove all. The object of Mr. G. H. L., is, of course, by discrediting the evidence of the four principal charges, to insinuate a similar want of validity in the evidence for the remaining accusations. Yet it should be remembered that the evidence for many of Nero's subsequent deeds of blood was of a different kind from that for the first four crimes. We are not speaking either of the death of Seneca (supposing his pupil at once to have been guiltless of that of Burrhus), nor of the removal of the brave Corbulo by the directions of his thankless master. But the blood-bath instituted after the discovery of Piso's conspiracy (comparable in monstrosity to the execution of the Strelitzes by the commands of Peter the Great, who is not deemed a monster, only because he was also a hero), and the annihilation of "virtue herself" in the person of Pætus Thrasea, must have been recorded in the public archives, now of course lost, but in existence at the time when Tacitus and Suetonius wrote. We are willing, however, like Mr. G. H. L., to "waive the discussion of all the other crimes," and similarly to omit a consideration of the counter-pleas somewhat disdainfully suggested by him on behalf of his protégé. He "notes by the way," that Nero, "on the very testimony of his accusers, was singularly free from cruelty. In those turbulent days he had many

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times to order the execution of conspirators"—and of such as might, would, or could become conspirators; "some of these were very possibly innocent; but we read of no such wholesale slaughter as is recorded of Augustus, who in one day put to death three hundred senators and nobles,"—a fact sufficiently explained by another, that there was at no time any entire party whom it behoved Nero to exterminate, except in the case of Piso's conspiracy, in which he assuredly went as far as possible. "And does not Suetonius," continues Mr. G. H. L. *en passant*, "record the public act of interdicting that the gladiators should be killed in the spectacle which he gave?" And does not, to appeal from an ancient historian to a modern, Mr. Merivale, in his *History*, very rationally account for this flash of clemency, by observing that Nero's "scruples were those of the man of art rather than the man of feeling;" that they were, in fact, only part and parcel of the Greek fashions, which Nero was ever anxious to introduce or encourage. "No one," we are further informed, "accuses Nero of hypocrisy; yet we are told that when a warrant for execution was brought to him for signature, he sighed, and exclaimed, 'Would I had never learned to write!'"—a courtly anecdote, which at the most proves that Nero had not ill learnt Seneca's lessons in rhetoric for short sentences, though he remained unable to apply them in long orations. Nor is Nero the only monster who has understood to perform simultaneously the operations of shedding tears and shedding blood.

It is best, however, to meet Mr. G. H. L. on his own ground, and to restrict any doubts on his doubts to the four points on which he has rested his case. Or rather to three out of the four; for most of his readers will consent at once to make him a present of the charge against Nero of the burning of Rome. An accusation like this is often brought, and rarely on any tenable grounds.

> "Base Bonaparte, who with deadly ire,
> Sets one by one our playhouses on fire,"

has long since been freed from this suspicion at all events; but it took a longer time to destroy the effects of the prejudice which produced the inscription on the Monument of the Fire of London. This false witness still "lifts its head and lies;" no longer believed, though still uncontradicted. The accusation against Nero has never found much serious credence; and Mr. G. H. L. himself notices that Tacitus leaves the matter an open question. He might, by this very passage, have been led to hesitate himself ere he accused the same historian of blind prejudice on other heads. The worst that can be urged against Nero, with regard to this charge is, that he was *omnium consensu capax* of committing, even if he actually did not commit it.

With respect to the three darkest murders of which Nero stands accused, Mr. G. H. L. thinks the evidence of the principal authorities on the subject, viz., of Tacitus, Suetonius, and Dion Cassius, worthless. He considers their statements nothing better than "unauthenticated rumours, born of malice, and exaggerated by thoughtlessness."

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That there is much thoughtlessness in Suetonius, and no little malice in Dion Cassius, may be readily admitted; nor can it be disputed that a strong party-bias, to some extent, prejudiced Tacitus, both as an admirer of the good old times, and as an adherent of the Flavian family, which sat in the seat of the Julii and Claudii. At the same time, the question arises, whether a strong party-bias in a historian is to be immediately assumed to invalidate his facts? It may certainly create a suspicion as to the colouring he gives them, and the inferences he draws from them,—though Tacitus is less fond than most modern historians of drawing inferences and suggesting opinions. Was not Thucydides a partisan? Or may not modern historians, such as Clarendon or Burnet, be instanced? We read all such writers with our eyes open, remembering that historians, writing from a different point of view, might frequently have produced a different picture; but, if we have a certain confidence in their general truthfulness and literary sense of honour, we do not, on the principle of ἀ"δειν πρὶν νενικηκέναι, assume them to be liars, and in consequence their facts to be false. How this confidence is produced is a question difficult, if not impossible, to answer. But we learn to esteem a writer with whom we are familiar as we learn to trust a personal acquaintance. In either case, our confidence may be rudely shocked, or completely overthrown; but it is not lightly cast off. And further, we may say of so penetrating a mind as that of Tacitus, what Mr. Merivale has said of Gibbon, that "though liable to the suspicion of interested motives, he is too shrewd to advance even an interested argument without reasonable grounds."

All this will, however, seem idle words to Mr. G. H. L., who stands, armed with the sponge of scepticism, ready to wipe away from the page of history everything not fully and duly evidenced. And here it may be asked what kind of evidence Mr. G. H. L. really requires from an ancient historian? He incidentally mentions the supposed fact that Locusta, the prisoner, was pardoned for her share in the murder of Britannicus (we shall shortly have occasion to return to this passage), and had a grant of land,—"a fact which requires proof." What proof does Mr. G. H. L. require of this fact? What proof of it could Suetonius possibly have given, supposing it to have been true? It was unfortunately not the custom of ancient historians to add foot-notes, quoting the authority of their statements, after the awe-inspiring fashion of the late Lord Macaulay; or he might have referred his readers to the records of the Universal Land Registry at Rome. He relates a fact, the truth or falsehood of which must have been notorious at Rome, even forty years after it took place; and by that notoriety his narrative must have been checked on a point on which it was scarcely worth his while to invent. It may therefore at once be conceded, that if the spirit of Nero were to be arraigned before the intelligent British jury suggested by Mr. G. H. L., it would be entitled to a verdict of acquittal from want of direct evidence; and by the same rule, all the Roman emperors, and the triumvirs to boot, would be absolved of all their crimes. Niebuhr might have saved

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himself the trouble of discriminating between the legendary and real parts of Roman history, for the whole would be a *tabula rasa;* and we should be reduced to a hesitating belief in our own existence, without being agreed concerning even that of Napoleon Bonaparte. Since Roman historians (especially since the various fires of Rome) cannot be checked by an inspection of contemporary documents, they may certainly be disbelieved with considerable success. The public archives are lost; private letters are but sparsely preserved, and what evidence is there of their genuineness? The belief of contemporaries, and of the less remote posterity, is certainly no proof for a jury; and yet what else have we generally to fall back upon? Josephus, a discriminating and impartial historian, gave full credit to the poisoning of Britannicus, and to the assassinations of Agrippina and Octavia; nor was there ever any one found to doubt the guilt of Nero, till eighteen hundred years after his death Mr. G. H. L. discovered a not very surprising want of direct evidence to prove it. He, however, goes a step further, and believes that the three writers mentioned above, whom the world has allowed to persuade it of the monstrosity of Nero, display such inherent absurdities in their way of stating their case as to throw immediate doubt on it. With regard to the death of Britannicus, he believes the general opinion, fixing on Nero as its cause, to be "flagrantly in defiance of common sense and science." While entirely disclaiming the character, and wholly deficient in the qualifications of a "scientific sceptic," I will endeavour to apply the test of common sense to the arguments of one as fearless in his sceptical procedure as he is distinguished for his scientific attainments.

The "motives imagined" for the crime, observes Mr. G. H. L., were Nero's hatred of Britannicus, because of his sweet voice, and his fear of him as a possible pretender to the crown. The former, of course, can only have been an aggravation of the latter. No one supposes that Queen Elizabeth directed, or allowed to take place, the execution of Mary Queen of Scots out of jealousy of her beauty, but few will doubt it to have been an element in her detestation of her rival. Nero had good reason to fear the pretendership of Britannicus. Himself only adopted among the Claudii, he might well dread the popularity attaching to the possible claims of one naturally descended from Germanicus Cæsar; and whom Agrippina had herself, in a moment of passion, declared to be the natural heir of the Emperor Claudius. To destroy the possibility of so formidable a pretender, Nero was forced to resort to secret assassination. Mr. G. H. L. remarks, that if Nero, as Tacitus relates, "*secretly* resolved" to murder Britannicus, it is difficult to see how the narrators could have gained the knowledge of this secret resolve. The words of Tacitus are *occulta* (not *occulte* or *clam*) *molitur*, and signify that the emperor determined on a secret method of putting an end to Britannicus, *i.e.*, on his assassination, as opposed to an open accusation, conviction, and execution; and not necessarily that he took his resolution secretly, without the knowledge of any other human

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being. A further objection is taken to the account given of the death of Britannicus, and of the effects of the poison on the appearance of his face. Britannicus is said, immediately on taking the poison, to have fallen speechless and breath- or life- less; whereas, according to Mr. G. H. L., aconite, the only poison known to the ancients exercising a speedy effect, "requires from one to three hours to produce fatal effects." Let us suppose the poison to have been aconite, as suggested. Cases are quoted, with regard to this very poison, by Dr. Taylor in his well-known work, which, allowing for a very slight and natural exaggeration on the part of the historians, completely tally with the account given by them of the death of Britannicus. A case is instanced by him of a man who took aconite, and in *two minutes* felt a burning heat in the mouth, followed by restlessness and stupor *almost amounting to insensibility*. If such were the effects produced by merely tasting the poison on a man who afterwards recovered, what must have been those of a strong dose on one who certainly was less fortunate? Another case is quoted, in which the symptoms appeared in half an hour, and death followed in two hours. If Britannicus became almost immediately insensible, and died an hour or two afterwards (after having been removed), there is not much which needs to be taken from the highly-coloured narrative of the historians. But Dion Cassius adds an anecdote, to the effect that the face of the corpse had become "quite black" (according to Mr. G. H. L.) from the poison, to conceal which Nero whitened it with chalk; but the falling rain washed away the chalk and disclosed the crime. "Science," exclaims Mr. G. H. L., "knows of no poison which instantaneously blackens the face of the victim. There are certain mineral poisons which, taken slowly, will slowly discolour the skin, but not one which, acting rapidly on the organism, rapidly betrays its presence by such discoloration." The following are the words of Dion Cassius: ἐπειδὴ πελιδνὸς ὑπὸ τοῦ φαρμάκου ἐγενήθη, γύψῳ ἔχρισεν (since he had become livid from the poison, he smeared him over with chalk). It will be seen that, in the first place, Dion Cassius does not pretend that the poison *instantaneously* blackened the face of the poisoned Britannicus. He merely relates that the latter had become πελιδνὸς from the poison. The word πελιδνὸς does not signify "quite black," but merely livid, and is used precisely in the latter sense by Thucydides, in describing the appearance of those struck by the plague. A German translator of Dion Cassius, Tafel, translates it "full of blue spots." There is hence no question of an actual blackening of the skin, but merely of a discoloration of its surface. Such an effect is, of course, most commonly produced by anything preventing the entrance of air into the lungs. "Whenever the privation of air is sudden and complete," observes Dr. Watson, in his *Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Physic*, "strong but vain contractions occur of all the muscles concerned in breathing. . . . This extreme distress is succeeded by vertigo . . . and then by loss of consciousness, and convulsions; at length all effort ceases . . . there is no asphyxia till the very last. During this process, *which does not occupy more than two or*

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three minutes, the face at first becomes flushed and turgid, then livid and purplish." Among the influences which call forth these effects Dr. Watson instances that of strychnine, which, like aconite, is a narcotico-irritant poison. But anybody who has seen the corpse of a person recently drowned, recognises the meaning of πελιδνὸς, and will have little difficulty in accounting for the very ordinary phenomenon mentioned by Dion Cassius, in which it seems to me impossible to discover any inherent absurdity.

"Having dismissed science, we now request common sense to step into the witness-box." She is stated to teach us that Nero and his accomplices would have kept the matter quiet; that the grant of land to Locusta, the poisoner, requires proof; and that "the fiction which connects her with Nero's criminal purposes, is betrayed in the mythical addition of the disciples placed with her to be instructed in her art." The following is the passage on which the above construction is put by Mr. G. H. L., and, I ought in fairness to add, also by Mr. Merivale. It is, accordingly, with considerable diffidence that I venture a doubt as to the admissibility of their interpretation:—

"Locustæ, pro navatâ operâ, impunitatem dedit, prædiaque ampla, sed et discipulos."

The *sed et* appears to me not to be explained by a *non modo* omitted in the preceding clause, but to be clearly to be understood in a quasi-ironical sense. I should therefore translate the passage thus:—

"To Locusta, in return for her assistance, he granted a free pardon, and large landed possessions; but what is more (*i.e.*, what is worse), he gave her a following."

In other words, he not only made Locusta rich, but he made poisoning fashionable. The notion of a college of poisoners, with Locusta as Lady Principal, certainly borders on the ridiculous, and renders it necessary to seek for a translation which the Latin words seem to me not only to bear but to demand.

The murder of Agrippina was a crime of a far more complicated nature, and many discrepancies may exist in the various accounts of it; but, on the other hand, most of the events, which led up to its final accomplishment, took place in the open air and the light of day, and must have been sufficiently notorious to preclude the supposition of falsification on the part of the historians. Mr. G. H. L. begins by scouting the notion of Agrippina having "fortified herself against attempts at poison, by the precautionary measure of swallowing antidotes." No one will be found at the present day to deny that a universal antidote is one of the fictions of antiquity which modern science has for ever exploded, so that Mr. G. H. L. might easily have spared himself the display of not very recondite learning on the subject. Meanwhile, he overlooks the circumstance that, as by his own showing, antiquity was hopelessly ignorant on this subject, it must be assumed that this general ignorance was shared by Nero. "It is not impossible," observes Mr. Merivale, "that she (Locusta) allowed such

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a rumour to be spread as a measure of precaution." Nor is it assuredly any more impossible that Nero should have given credence to this rumour, after finding his first attempts foiled. Similarly, in the case of Britannicus, the poison administered by Locusta at first failed to take the desired effect, and she was accused by Nero of supplying an antidote. It is, of course, impossible to determine the cause of the failure of the first poisons administered, or attempted to be administered, to Agrippina; but either a *prægustator*, or an emetic, may have served the purpose. But no one will be desirous of making a stand for the universal antidote, which by the way is in the present case never mentioned as such, the terms used being antido*ta*, remedi*a*. Over the rest of the story, and of the objections raised against it by Mr. G. H. L., I may pass rapidly. I cannot see anything melodramatic in the contrivance of loosening the floor over her bed-chamber, inasmuch as it is a device not unknown to sober history. Anicetus offered his services; how, asks Mr. G. H. L., did this offer become known? By the open share, I answer, subsequently taken by Anicetus in this and later crimes of Nero. The story of the vessel, constructed so as to collapse as if by accident, raises a smile from Mr. G. H. L. at the credulity of Tacitus; but he will find in a note to Mr. Merivale's *History* (vol. vi. p. 124) the statement, that not only does this mechanism occur again in Dion Cassius's history under the reign of Severus, but that Reimar refers to a coin of that emperor on which it is represented. Tacitus does not say that "the troops" forced their way into Agrippina's chamber, but merely that Anicetus entered it, accompanied by two naval officers. And the argument that the senate could scarcely have descended to so low a depth of servility as to celebrate Nero's escape from Agrippina's snares, "when he *openly* declared himself terror-stricken by remorse," is not supported by the anecdotes of Suetonius referred to, in which it is merely related that he *sæpe confessus est*, how he was haunted by his mother's ghost. The word *confiteri* surely is far from implying an open confession to senate and people.

A very few words will suffice with reference to the last of the four charges against Nero discussed in the paper in question. Mr. G. H. L.'s method of defending the emperor against the imputation of having murdered his wife is so peculiar, and the defence itself is at the same time so brief, that it may be quoted in its entirety:—

> "The last crime to be noticed here is the murder of his wife. Suetonius assures us that he thrice attempted to strangle Octavia, and having failed in these attempts, divorced her; but Suetonius omits to explain how so sanguinary a tyrant should so easily have been baffled, or why he did not divorce her at once. His next wife, Poppæa, when about to become a mother, he killed with a kick, 'only because she took the liberty of chiding him for coming home late.'"

Thus the murder of his wife becomes the murders of his wives, for it is to that of Octavia that we must presume Mr. G. H. L. originally to allude; nor can he be supposed to doubt, inasmuch as he never so much as mentions it. Incidentally I may remark, that Suetonius (if chap. xxxv.

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be the passage in question) does not assure us that Nero thrice attempted to strangle Octavia, but that he frequently looked out in vain for the means of compassing this design—*sæpe frustra strangulare meditatus*. His not divorcing her at once, can easily be explained by the pretence made at the time of the actual execution of his wish; he divorced her *ut sterilem*, a fact which it generally takes some time after marriage to discover. At all events, I am at a loss to see how Mr. G. H. L. damages the account given by the historians of the murder of Octavia, by omitting its principal part and adding the very plain statement of the brutal termination of Poppæa's mad career.

In conclusion, while looking forward with eager interest to the ingenious process by which Nero will at some future time be exculpated from the remaining accusations which the blind prejudice and credulity of ages have brought against him, the candid reader of the historians and of their critic will not be able to suppress a hope that arguments somewhat more forcible will be found to procure the reversion of a verdict given, not by Tacitus and Suetonius alone, but by the universal consent of contemporaries and posterity. The fame of Nero, like the face of his victim Britannicus, has become too unmistakably discoloured to assume a fairer semblance even under the most judiciously applied and most ingeniously disavowed whitewash.

A. W. Ward.

VIII. CURIOUS PREDICTIONS.

The Pagan oracles have offered a fruitful field for speculation from the earliest ages of Christianity down to the present day. The opinion of the Fathers, which attributed them all to diabolical inspiration, was accepted in its most unmitigated form as a sufficient explanation of all difficulties, until it was finally refuted by the profound learning and remorseless sarcasm of Ant. Van Dale. That author, in his celebrated book *De Ethnicorum Oraculis* (A.D. 1682), flying from outrageous credulity to groundless scepticism, took refuge in the equally unsatisfactory hypothesis of systematic fraud. Between these two violent extremes the pendulum of general opinion has since been oscillating; but although many since the time of Van Dale have written on the subject of oracles, they still continue to offer great difficulties to the student of history, and we believe that they would repay a far more thorough consideration than has yet been devoted to them.

We do not intend in the present brief paper to plunge into the vortex of endless controversy on the subject of oracles, predictions, and mysterious intimations of the future, but we have thought that a few instances of one small and special class of prophecies would be interesting to most readers; we mean those prophecies, apparently authentic, which have announced to the inquirer the place where he should die, and which have been fulfilled to the ear, though falsified

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to the expectation, by the death occurring at some place, previously unknown to the recipient of the prophecy, but bearing the very name which was indicated to him in the prediction.

That *amphibilogia*, or an intentional obscurity of language, and an adoption of phrases which admitted of two, and even of contradictory applications, has been a common resource of soothsayers in all ages, is fully admitted. But the instances to be adduced are none the less curious from their having proved deceptive. In each case *they were fulfilled*, literally and distinctly fulfilled, though not in the manner expected by those to whom they were uttered. That there were *two* places bearing the name mentioned in the prediction, the one obscure, the other famous, would only increase the antecedent improbability of its fulfilment. The inquirer would naturally avoid the well-known spot to which he supposed the oracle to apply; how infinite, *à priori*, would be the chances against his meeting with his death at *another* place of the same name, so obscure that he had never heard of it before. To assume the genuineness of the oracle, and yet to assert that its fulfilment was due to a fortuitous combination of circumstances, is surely to display an enormous and extraordinary ignorance of the doctrine of chances. Macbeth cursed

> "Those juggling fiends
> That patter with us in a double sense;
> That keep the word of promise to our ear,
> And break it to our hope."

If the predictions of which we are speaking fall under this curse, they, at any rate, powerfully prove an ancient belief in the unwisdom of all attempts to pry into the future, and in the certainty that we shall only the more inevitably fulfil our destiny by the endeavour to escape it. A beautiful eastern apologue forcibly illustrates the same moral lesson. It is said that Solomon was once standing with his courtiers at Jerusalem, when Azrael, the Angel of Death, passed by, and gazed intently on one of the group. Terrified by the angel's glance, the man implored Solomon to lend him the magic carpet, on which he could transport himself wherever he willed; and being allowed to use it, at once wished himself removed to India. A few moments afterwards Azrael re-passed the group, bearing the man's soul in his arms. "I gazed," he said, "in surprise on that man, because, being missioned to take his soul *in India*, I found him standing here with you *in Jerusalem*."

The instances which we have promised are to be found in authors of every description and every age, from the mythologic period of ancient Greece down to the epoch of authentic and undoubted modern history.

The first of which we are aware is the case of the poet Hesiod, and rests on the authority of Thucydides.* Hesiod had been warned by an oracle that he should die at Nemea, and he naturally interpreted it of the celebrated Nemea in Argolis. His death *did* take place in the temple of the Nemean Zeus, on the borders of Ætolia.

* Thucydides, iii. 96. Plutarch *Conv. Sept. Sap.* 19. Pausan. *Bœot.* ix. 31.

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Another instance may be found in the history of Cambyses, as related by Herodotus.* While in Egypt, he had been informed by an oracle from the city of Buto that he would die at Ecbatana. It was natural that he should understand the prediction to refer to the royal and beautiful city of Ecbatana, the capital of Media, and he accordingly looked forward to dying there, in the midst of all his possessions, at a ripe old age. But receiving, whilst in Syria, the news of a successful conspiracy by Smerdis, he leapt furiously on his horse, and was wounded by his own sword,—of which the scabbard had been shaken off by the violence of his motion,—in the same spot where he had previously wounded the Egyptian Apis. Inquiring the name of the place, he was told that it was called Ecbatana; and being instantly sobered by the intelligence, he exclaimed, "Here is it destined that Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, should die;" and here accordingly, *in the Syrian village*, not *in the Median palace*, he died a few days after, in the year B.C. 522.

The same historian supplies us with a second instance of similar error in the case of Cleomenes,† king of Sparta, about B.C. 510. Trusting to an oracle which promised him the conquest of Argos, he invaded Argolis, defeated the Argine forces, and drove them into a sacred grove, which he then burned down. Inquiring the name of the grove, he was informed that it was dedicated to the hero Argus, and, familiar apparently with the double-dealing of the Delphian prophets, he groaned aloud as it flashed upon him that *this* must have been the Argos which the god intended. So convinced was he of this, that, according to Herodotus, he returned without attempting to attack the city itself, and was, *on the score of his interpretation of the oracle*, triumphantly acquitted by the Spartan ephors. The story, which is almost undoubtedly authentic, is chiefly remarkable as establishing the *frequent* occurrence of this oracular ambiguity.

Our fourth instance we take from Livy,‡ and it occurred B.C. 323. Alexander, king of Epirus, and uncle of Alexander the Great, had been warned by the Sortilege of Dodona to beware of Pandosia and the Acheron, for that *there* his life was destined to be lost. Interpreting this of the town and river in Epirus so named, he was the more eager (*ut ferme fugiendo in media fata ruitur*, as Livy powerfully remarks) to accept the invitation of the Tarentines to assist them against the Bruttians and Lucanians. Forced into a battle by the treachery of some Lucanian exiles, near a town on the confines of Bruttium, named Pandosia, he was escaping across a river with some chosen followers, when one of them stumbling, cursed the stream, exclaiming, "Well art thou named Acheron." Recognising the omen of his destiny, the king drew his sword, and made his horse plunge into the water; but before he could get across he was pierced by the

* Herod. iii. 64. But Ctesias (*Excerpt. Pers.*, sect. 12), and Josephus (*Antiq.* xi. 2. 2) tell different stories of the fate of Cambyses.

† Herod. vi. 80, 81. Pausanius, ii. sect. 20. 8. On the whole story, see Grote, iv. 436.

‡ Livy, viii. 24.

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javelin of one of the traitors, and his lifeless body was swept down the stream.

A fifth instance is supplied by the history of Seleucus* Nicator, B.C. 280. This prince had been warned by an oracle to have a care of Argos, which he understood of the celebrated Peloponnesian city. But while marching to Macedonia to take possession of the kingdom, he stopped at Lysimachia in the Thracian Chersonese, and while he was asking many questions about an old altar which he had observed, and which he was told bore the name of Argos, he was stabbed in the back and killed by Ptolemy Cerannos.

Our sixth prophecy rests on the authority of Josephus,† and its fulfilment took place in the year B.C. 106. An Essene, named Judas, had foretold to the Asmonean prince Antigonus, that he would die on a certain day at Strato's Tower,—by which they both supposed the town of Cesærea to be intended, because at that time it was called Strato's Tower. Seeing Antigonus at Jerusalem on the day appointed, and hearing soon after that he had been murdered in a most tragic manner in the palace Baris, Judas fell into a great agony of mind, fearing that the divine intimation would be frustrated. But shortly after, he was informed that Antigonus had met his lamentable fate in a gallery under that part of the palace which went by the name of Strato's Tower.

The four remaining cases which we intend to adduce are all derived from modern history. One is, of course, the well-known story of Henry IV., and we may spare all further narrative of it by simply quoting the words of Shakspeare (King Henry IV., Part II. Act iv. Sc. 4):—

K. Hen. "Doth any name particular belong
Unto the lodging where I first did swoon?
Warwick. 'Tis called Jerusalem, my noble lord.
K. Hen. Laud be to heaven!—even there my life must end.
It hath been prophesied to me many years
I should not die but in Jerusalem;
Which vainly I supposed the Holy Land:—
But bear me to that chamber; there I'll lie;
In *that* Jerusalem shall Harry die."‡

An exactly similar story is related of Robert Guiscard, the Duke of Apulia, who, having been told that he would die in Jerusalem, set sail for Palestine, and falling sick on the voyage died at a village named Jerusalem in the island of Zacynthus.

Raumer, in his *Geschichte der Hohenstaufen*,§ relates that the celebrated Prince Ezelin having been dangerously wounded, captured, and imprisoned by the enemy, inquired of his jailer the name of the place where he had been taken. He was informed that it was called Cassano, and then observed that this must be the *B*assano at which it had been predicted that he should die.

* Justin, xvii. 2. Appian *Syr.*, 62. Memnon, *Excerpt. apud Phot.*, 13. The story is told in Prideaux *Connect.*, ii. 23.

† Josephus *Antiq.*, xiii. 19. *De Bell Jud.*, i. 3.

‡ For another instance, see Henry VI., Part II. Act i. Sc. 1.; and Act v. Sc. 3.

§ *Geschichte der Hohenstaufen*, viii. 5, tom. iv. 439, quoted by Baehr on Herod., iii. 64.

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The tenth and last instance is said to have happened to Ferdinand the Catholic. This prince "being foretold that he should die at Madrigal, carefully avoided going thither. But while he was thus, as he thought, avoiding his death, he found it at Madrigalejo or Little Madrigal, a poor little village he had never before heard of. For, as he was accidentally passing through it, he was suddenly taken ill, and being carried into a poor cottage, the best protection the place could afford him, he died there in a hole scarce large enough to receive his bed."

Cases of similar prophecies might be almost indefinitely multiplied, and indeed Cicero tells us that in his day a book was well known in which Chrysippus had collected innumerable instances of oracles which had come true, and substantiated them by adequate* authorities. Many of these might, doubtless, have been resolved into the conjectures of political sagacity; many may have directly led to their own fulfilment; many may have been due to a system of secret espionage; many were so framed as to admit of two constructions, of which one *must* be fulfilled; and some may have only been fortunate guesses. But even when we have made all these abatements, and added to them those suggested by Bacon in his Essay on Prophecies, there remains much which we must simply confess our inability to explain, and which must be set by the side of similar strange instances of apparent divination or second-sight, which will be supplied out of almost every person's private experience.

Of course the refuge of entire scepticism, as to the *facts* themselves, lies open to every one. But to disbelieve every recorded statement which we may be unable to understand, or which militates against our preconceived opinion, is surely a very coarse and ready way of cutting the Gordian knot presented to us. History cannot be so very full of objectless lies. No good grounds can be offered for such widely-extended incredulity, and to all who have thought much on the subject, such incredulity must appear both unphilosophical and capricious.

De Quincey, who, in a paper on the Pagan oracles, mentions with some very incorrect details three of the instances which we have here adduced, sets them down as "the commonest of dodges amongst the heathen professors of divination." We do not understand the applicability of the remark to the earlier cases here mentioned. If the facts be reliable, the oracle was in each case *literally* fulfilled; the fact that it was thus literally fulfilled in a manner *quite different from that in which it had been understood and accepted*, only places the strangeness of the supposed predictive power in a more conspicuous light. For ourselves, we confess that no explanation of these curious prophecies (if we are to accept them, or some of them, as facts) has ever given us the slightest satisfaction, and we class them among those insoluble problems with which history abounds.

FREDERIC W. FARRAR.

* "Collegit innumerabilia oracula Chrysippus, et nullum sine locuplete teste et auctore."—*Cic. de Div.*, i. 19.

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IX. CURRENT LITERATURE—FICTION.

1. *Romola.* By GEORGE ELIOT, Author of *Adam Bede*, *Silas Marner*, etc. 3 vols. Smith, Elder, & Co. 1863.
2. *Chronicles of Carlingford: The Rector, and the Doctor's Family.* Originally published in Blackwood's Magazine. W. Blackwood & Sons. 1863.
3. *The Water Babies: A Fairy Tale for a Land Baby.* By the Rev. CHARLES KINGSLEY. With two Illustrations by J. Noel Paton, R.S.A. Macmillan. 1863.
4. *The Strange Adventures of Captain Dangerous.* A Narrative in old-fashioned English. Attempted by George Augustus Sala. 3 vols. Tinsley Brothers. 1863.
5. *Live It Down: A Story of the Light Lands.* By J. C. JEAFFRESON, Author of *Olive Blake's Good Works*, *A Book about Doctors*, etc., etc. 3 vols. Hurst & Blackett. 1863.

1. IN *Romola*, "George Eliot" has imposed upon herself a two-fold difficulty, either member of which would have put an ordinary novelist to his mettle. She has not only chosen a foreign country as the scene of her story, but in that country she has chosen a long bye-gone age; and, as if this were not enough to tax the power of which she is conscious, she challenges criticism of the keenest edge by bringing upon her stage great historical personages, by interweaving her plot with the intricate politics of an Italian state, and by introducing questions of books, and learning, and art, which must be a puzzle, if not a barrier, to three-fourths of every-day novel readers. An ordinary rope-dancer is satisfied with displaying his feats on a rope eight or ten feet from the ground; but a Blondin, secure in his own skill, hoists his cable a hundred feet up, adds to the daring of the feat by swinging the rope across Niagara, and ends by carrying on his back some one as fool-hardy as himself over the boiling torrent. We must not be understood as putting "George Eliot" in the same category with the danger-courting acrobat. We have used the comparison as an illustration merely, and that because, in their origin, the two things are very similar: in the one case we see a consciousness of great power, in the other case a consciousness of great skill, leading to the adoption of unusual courses, and to the braving of difficulties and of dangers in which ordinary heads would swim.

No one will say that in the case of *Romola* the extraordinary effort is not justified by the result. Some writers have recourse to foreign scenes and subjects to conceal the weakness which they would inevitably betray at home. Those who know *Adam Bede* or *Silas Marner*, will acquit "George Eliot" of needing to resort to such a trick. Neither would we have it implied that she has wilfully sought the difficulties referred to, in any spirit of bravado. Wishing to exhibit in a strong light a remarkable combination of high intellectual with low moral qualities, she has sought for a fitting field in

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which to give them play; and she has chosen the circumstances and the age to which she was drawn not more by their suitableness for her purpose than by her knowledge and sympathy. She might have chosen different circumstances—circumstances wholly imaginary—in which to develop the character she had conceived; had she done so her task might have been easier. But by connecting the peculiar phase of human nature projected in her mind, with real events and a historical epoch, she has immensely increased the issues of every act, and has in the same proportion intensified the force of her delineation. It is in this that the great value of a historical novel or a historical play consists. It is here, also, that its great difficulty lies. George Eliot held the end too valuable to be scared by the difficulties. And she has completely mastered the difficulties; for *Romola* is a historical novel of the highest type.

It does not seek to assume a historical character by the common device of the occasional introduction of a historical personage. The imaginative woof of individual interest is wrought into the warp of historical truth. Florence and the Florentines of the fifteenth century are reproduced with remarkable circumstantiality and vividness. Not only are we made familiar with its streets and churches, its palaces and prisons; not only do we see before us the citizens of every grade in their habits as they lived; but the minutest details of taste and fashion, of every-day life and social and domestic customs, have been carefully studied, and are introduced with the skill and unobtrusiveness of true art. More remarkable still is the ingenuity with which she has threaded the maze of Florentine politics, with their plots and counterplots, their family intrigues, their subtle ecclesiastical influences,—politics which, along with the widest relations, "had also the passionate intensity and the detailed practical interest which could belong only to a narrow scene of corporate action; only to the members of a community shut in close by the hills and by walls of six miles' circuit, where men knew each other as they passed in the street." To make the picture perfect, the author has not forgotten to introduce those scholastic and philosophical elements which the revival of letters had given to the scene and the age in question; and the learned infidelity into which men were drawn, when the strength of their own minds led them to throw off the fetters of the Church, holds a prominent place in the plot of the story.

History, philosophy, and learning are thus the materials out of which the framework of *Romola* is constructed; and these materials are handled with remarkable power, at the same time with ease and graceful familiarity, and with hardly a touch of pedantry. These are not materials, however, which are likely to interest, or even to be tolerated by, the mass of ordinary novel-readers. With such, *Romola* can hardly be expected to be popular; and probably no one knows this better than the author knew it aforetime. Chapter v. of Book i. (in which we are introduced to "the Blind Scholar and his Daughter"), like Proposition v. of Book i. in Euclid, will doubtless be a very *pons asinorum* to many readers. Those, however, who persevere beyond this have a

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rich reward awaiting them. There is more than one strong individual interest in the book; there is in it powerful working out of character, in phases which are independent both of age and country; for does not the author, in her finely-conceived "Proem" confess her belief in "the broad sameness of the human lot, which never alters in the main headings of its history—hunger and labour, seed-time and harvest, love and death?" Then as now, there as here, "the life-currents that ebb and flow in human hearts pulsate to the same great needs, the same great loves and terrors."

The man in whom the interest of *Romola* chiefly centres, throughout the greater part of the story, is Tito Melema, a subtle, handsome, learned, well-spoken Greek adventurer, at once the most powerfully and the most acutely drawn character in the book. It is, perhaps, an unfortunate feature of the work that the man who chiefly excites our interest never once calls forth the faintest spark of our sympathy. His moral nature rests on a basis of selfishness and cowardice. He abandons the most sacred ties whenever they have ceased to be pleasant, and this abandonment works itself out to the extreme of falsity and ingratitude. Cast upon Florence as a shipwrecked stranger, he forgets at once the foster-father from whom the storm has severed him. Arguing himself into the belief that old Baldassarre was dead, while he knew he was in slavery, he sells the gems which should have ransomed him, to feed his own vanity. Months afterwards, when the old man, miserable and dementate, is brought into Florence as a prisoner by the French soldiers who accompany Charles VIII., Tito denies him, and uses the influence he has acquired to consign him to prison as a mad impostor. As Baldassarre afterwards said in one of these rare lucid intervals that always came at the wrong time: "He made me love him: he was beautiful and gentle, and I was a lonely man. I took him when they were beating him. He slept in my bosom when he was little, and I watched him as he grew, and gave him all my knowledge; and everything that was mine I meant to be his. I had many things: money, and books, and gems. He had my gems—he sold them; and he left me in slavery. He never came to seek me, and when I came back poor and in misery, he denied me. He said I was a madman." Out of this first false step all the sin and shame of his public and private life naturally flow. Engrossed in the whirl of party politics, he plots with all parties at once; each thinks him its friend, while he is ready to sell any or all of them to save himself. Married to Romola di Bardi, the daughter of the Blind Scholar, Bardo, the secrets of his life, and the desperate courses to which the necessities of his position drive him, soon separate them in sympathy, and make him false to her in love. He is hopelessly entangled in the double meshes of political intrigue and personal shame. Then fear of Baldassarre the Avenger takes hold upon him; and while he seems to be basking in the sunshine of outward prosperity, his heart is fluttering in an atmosphere of dread, and he wears a coat of mail beneath his tunic. His showy qualities excite in us no admiration: we watch his career only in the hope of seeing him unmasked and overtaken by retributive justice. But we are disappointed; and we venture

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to think that, morally, this is a serious flaw in the teaching of the book. Calamity does overtake him; but not of the kind, or in the way, which every reader must feel to have been deserved. Dickens committed the same mistake when, in *Dombey and Son*, he got rid of Carker by a railway accident. George Eliot's error is not quite so bad; for when Tito flings himself into the Arno, it is by the same instinct of self-preservation that has ruled his life; and when, exhausted and dying, he is thrown upon the river bank, it is to be clutched by Baldassarre the Avenger, and to die in the dying gripe of the man whom he had most injured upon the earth. Such things may happen in real life; but it is the interest of all men that neither self-inflicted violence, nor private revenge, should cheat justice of its victim. This is the very issue which, in the case of Nana Sahib, for instance, we are all hoping may be averted. We are only left to infer that Tito has been found out, and that by a man not much worthier than himself. Surely Dolfo Spini and his Compagnacci were not the men most fit to punish the refined and manifold villany of the subtle Greek, even if they had succeeded. It is a tragic end, but an impotent conclusion.

Such is the infamous man alongside of whom the noble and loving character of Romola herself is developed. First by his coldness, then by her suspicions of his duplicity, and finally by her knowledge of his faithlessness and dishonesty, she is racked and tormented, till she takes refuge in flight. By the influence of Savonarola she is induced to return, and to devote herself to a life of piety and usefulness. From this point onwards the grand figure of the Prior of San Marco, seen by occasional glimpses in the earlier parts of the work, becomes the most prominent on the stage. Indeed, throughout the third volume, he is the hero of the book; his "last silence" occupies its last chapter, his memory is cherished in the last sentence of the Epilogue. The author's grasp of the character of the great Dominican is most thorough; her delineation of it in all its lights and shades,—the fire of his enthusiasm, the tenderness of his yearnings, his entanglement in politics, his defiance of the thunders of the Vatican,—is masterly in the extreme. From this work, we believe, not a few will get their first real insight into Savonarola's character. In this connexion chiefly are we inclined to make quotations from the book. Take the following as one of many incidental allusions to features of his character, in connexion with the challenge to a Trial by Fire given him by a Franciscan Monk, Fra Francesco di Puglia:—

"Savonarola's nature was one of those in which opposing tendencies co-exist in almost equal strength: the passionate sensibility which, impatient of definite thought, floods every idea with emotion and tends towards contemplative ecstasy, alternated in him with a keen perception of outward facts, and a vigorous practical judgment of men and things. And in this case of the Trial by Fire, the latter characteristics were stimulated into unusual activity by an acute physical sensitiveness which gives overpowering force to the conception of pain, and destruction as a necessary sequence of facts which have already been experienced as causes of pain. The readiness with which men will consent to touch red-hot iron with a wet finger is not to be measured by their theoretic acceptance of the impossibility that the iron will burn them: practical belief depends on what is most strongly represented in the mind at a given moment. And with the Frate's constitution,

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when the trial by fire was urged on his imagination as an immediate demand, it was impossible for him to believe that he or any other man could walk through the flames unhurt—impossible for him to believe that even if he resolved to offer himself, he would not shrink at the last moment."

We quote the following passage from one of his sermons in the Duomo, to show how he wielded his influence over the Florentines in masses:—

"Savonarola's voice had been rising in impassioned force up to this point, when he became suddenly silent, let his hands fall, and clasped them quietly before him. His silence, instead of being the signal for small movements amongst his audience, seemed to be as strong a spell to them as his voice. Through the vast area of the cathedral men and women sat with faces upturned, like breathing statues, till the voice was heard again in clear low tones.

"Yet there is a pause—even as in the days when Jerusalem was destroyed there was a pause that the children of God might flee from it. There is a stillness before the storm: lo, there is blackness above, but not a leaf quakes: the winds are stayed, that the voice of God's warning may be heard. Hear it now, O Florence, chosen city in the chosen land! Repent and forsake evil: do justice: love mercy: put away all uncleanness from among you, that the spirit of truth and holiness may fill your souls and breathe through all your streets and habitations, and then the pestilence shall not enter, and the sword shall pass over you and leave you unhurt.

"For the sword is hanging from the sky; it is quivering; it is about to fall! The sword of God upon the earth, swift and sudden! Did I not tell you years ago, that I had beheld the vision and heard the voice? And behold, it is fulfilled! Is there not a king with his arms at your gates? Does not the hearth shake with the tread of horses and the wheels of swift cannon? Is there not a fierce multitude that can lay bare the land as with a sharp razor? I tell you the French king with his army is the minister of God; God shall guide him as the hand guides a sharp sickle, and the joints of the wicked shall melt before him, and they shall be mown down as stubble: he that fleeth of them shall not flee away, and he that escapeth of them shall not be delivered. And the tyrants who make to themselves a throne out of the vices of the multitude, and the unbelieving priests who traffic in the souls of men, and fill the very sanctuary with fornication, shall be hurled from their soft couches into burning hell; and the pagans and they who sinned under the cold covenant shall stand aloof and say: 'Lo! these men have brought the stench of a new wickedness into the everlasting fire.'

"But thou, O Florence, take the offered mercy. See! the cross is held out to you: come and be healed. Which among the nations of Italy has had a token like unto yours? The tyrant is driven out from among you: the men who held a bribe in their left hand and a rod in their right are gone forth, and no blood has been spilled. And now put away every other abomination from among you, and you shall be strong in the strength of the living God. Wash yourselves from the black pitch of your vices, which have made you even as the heathens: put away the envy and hatred that have made your city as a nest of wolves. And there shall no harm happen to you: and the passage of armies shall be to you as the flight of birds, and rebellious Pisa shall be given to you again, and famine and pestilence shall be far from your gates, and you shall be as a beacon among the nations. But, mark! while you suffer the accursed thing to be in the camp, you shall be afflicted and tormented, even though a remnant among you may be saved.

"These admonitions and promises had been spoken in an incisive tone of authority; but in the next sentence the preacher's voice melted into a strain of entreaty.

"Listen, O people, over whom my heart yearns, as the heart of a mother over the children she has travailed for! God is my witness that but for your sakes I would willingly live as a turtle in the depths of the forest, singing low to my Beloved, who is mine and I am His. For you I toil, for you I languish, for you my nights are spent in watching, and my soul melteth away for very heaviness. O Lord, thou knowest I am willing—I am ready. Take me, stretch me on thy cross; let the wicked who delight in blood, and rob the poor, and defile the temple of their

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bodies, and harden themselves against thy mercy—let them wag their heads and shoot out the lip at me: let the thorns press upon my brow, and let my sweat be anguish—I deserve to be made like Thee in thy great love. But let me see of the fruit of my travail—let this people be saved! Let me see them clothed in purity: let me hear their voices rise in concord as the voices of the angels: let them see no wisdom but in thy eternal law, no beauty but in holiness. Then they shall lead the way before the nations, and the people from the four winds shall follow them, and be gathered into the fold of the blessed. For it is thy will, O God, that the earth shall be converted unto thy law: it is thy will that wickedness shall cease and love shall reign. Come, O blessed promise! and behold, I am willing—lay me on the altar: let my blood flow and the fire consume me; but let my witness be remembered among men, that iniquity shall not prosper for ever.

"During the last appeal, Savonarola had stretched out his arms and lifted up his eyes to heaven; his strong voice had alternately trembled with emotion and risen again in renewed energy; but the passion with which he offered himself as a victim became at last too strong to allow of further speech, and he ended in a sob. Every changing tone, vibrating through the audience, shook them into answering emotion. There were plenty among them who had very moderate faith in the Frate's prophetic mission, and who in their cooler moments loved him little; nevertheless, they too were carried along by the great wave of feeling which gathered its force from sympathies that lay deeper than all theory. A loud responding sob rose at once from the wide multitude, while Savonarola had fallen on his knees and buried his face in his mantle. He felt in that moment the rapture and glory of martyrdom without its agony."

And lastly, to show in comparison with this his great influence over the individual mind, we select the following as an instance of the peculiar spell under which, on more than one occasion, he laid Romola:—

"Her enthusiasm was continually stirred to fresh vigour by the influence of Savonarola. In spite of the wearisome visions and allegories from which she recoiled in disgust when they came as stale repetitions from other lips than his, her strong affinity for his passionate sympathy and the splendour of his aims, had lost none of its power. His burning indignation against the abuses and oppression that made the daily story of the Church and of States, had kindled the ready fire in her too. His special care for liberty and purity of government in Florence, with his constant reference of this immediate object to the wider end of a universal regeneration, had created in her a new consciousness of the great drama of human existence in which her life was a part; and through her daily helpful contact with the less fortunate of her fellow-citizens, this new consciousness became something stronger than a vague sentiment; it grew into a more and more definite motive of self-denying practice. She thought little about dogmas, and shrank from reflecting closely on the Frate's prophecies of the immediate scourge and closely following regeneration. She had submitted her mind to his, and had entered into communion with the Church, because in this way she had found an immediate satisfaction for moral needs, which all the previous culture and experience of her life had left hungering. Fra Girolamo's voice had waked in her mind a reason for living, apart from personal enjoyment and personal affection; but it was a reason that seemed to need feeling with greater forces than she possessed within herself, and her submissive use of all offices of the Church was simply a watching and waiting if by any means fresh strength might come. The pressing problem for Romola just then was not to settle questions of controversy, but to keep alive that flame of unselfish emotion by which a life of sadness might still be a life of active love.

"Her trust in Savonarola's nature as greater than her own, made a larger part of the strength she had found. And the trust was not to be lightly shaken. It is not force of intellect which causes ready repulsion from the aberrations and eccentricities of greatness, any more than it is force of vision that causes the eye to explore the wants on a face bright with human expression; it is simply the negation of high sensibilities. Romola was so deeply moved by the grand energies

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of Savonarola's nature, that she found herself listening patiently to all dogmas and prophecies, when they came in the vehicle of his ardent faith and believing utterance.*

"No soul is desolate as long as there is a human being for whom it can feel trust and reverence. Romola's trust in Savonarola was something like a rope suspended securely by her path, making her step elastic while she grasped it; if it were suddenly removed, no firmness of the ground she trod could save her from staggering or perhaps from falling."

Certainly these three—Tito, Romola, and Savonarola—are the most elaborate figures in the picture. Several of the subordinate characters, however, are drawn with great skill and force; for example, Nello, the witty and talkative barber, Piero di Cosimo, the keen-eyed, eccentric painter, and Tessa, the simple-minded, babyish Contadina, Tito's "other wife." *Romola* is not free from the conventional furniture which the novelist has occasionally to introduce. Many of the chance meetings are brought about not quite naturally: for example, that of Tessa and Romola at the Carnival; of Tessa and Baldassarre on the hill of Bogoli; of Baldassarre and Romola on San Miniato; more improbable still, that of Romola and Lillo (Tessa's boy) in the Borgo La Croce; and most unaccountable of all, that of Baldassarre and Tito amongst the rushes on Arno's bank, where they were found locked in death. Taken as it stands, however, *Romola* is a great work—that, probably, by which the author will be known in English literature.

2. Readers who find *Romola* either too exciting or too learned, will find relief from both of these inconveniences in the quiet and homely, though not less lifelike, *Chronicles of Carlingford*. The new volume contains two distinct stories, only slenderly connected by the few characters they have in common. Two circles in society, like two circles in geometry, when they cut each other, must have a portion in common. The Rector's small circle, and the Doctor's somewhat larger one, are the intersecting figures in this volume; and the Miss Wodehouses are the common segment.

The pith of the characterization in these *Chronicles* consists chiefly in very obvious and sharply-drawn antitheses. The Rector of Carlingford is a scholar, but he knows nothing of parochial work. He has remained in All Souls' till his fiftieth year, and finds that his knowledge of Greek particles is of little use to him in ministering to his poor parishioners. The perpetual Curate of St. Roque's, on the contrary, is a young man with special aptitude for parish work. The Rector, in one of his walks, is suddenly called to the deathbed of a poor woman. He does not know how to speak to the dying, and as he has not his prayer-book in his pocket, he is utterly helpless; he can neither address the woman, nor plead with God for her. The

* He himself had had occasion enough to note the efficacy of that vehicle. "If," he says in the Compendium Revelationum, "you speak of such as have not heard these things from me, I admit that they who disbelieve are more than they who believe, because it is one thing to hear him who inwardly feels these things, and another to hear him who feels them not; . . . and, therefore, it is well said by St. Jerome, 'Habet nescio quid latentis energiæ vivæ vocis actus, et in aures discipuli de auctoris ore transfusa fortis sonat.'"

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Curate comes in, ministers to her mind diseased, and freely engages in extempore prayer. The Rector's discomfiture is complete; all the more that his predecessor had been "very low-church, and visited about like a Dissenter." His distress and perplexity are terrible. After a severe struggle he resigns, and returns to his books and his college. The lesson, however, has not been thrown away upon him; for he appears subsequently to have gone back to parish work, and to have found an help meet for him in the elder Miss Wodehouse.

We find the same marshalling of contrasts in the second story, "The Doctor's Family," where it is even more strongly marked. The industrious and high-spirited Dr. Edward Rider (the Doctor) presents a forcible antithesis to his indigent and Dundrearyish brother, Dr. Fred. The latter lives, that is, smokes and drinks, upon his brother, and is the very skeleton in his cupboard. Edward knew nothing of his brother's marriage in Australia, until one evening Mrs. Fred, with her sister and her children, are announced at the Doctor's house. Nettie Nettleton and her sister Susan (Mrs. Fred) make as striking a contrast as the two Riders, or the two clergymen, or Miss Wodehouse and her sister Lucy. Susan is listless, selfish, unpractical, like her husband; Nettie is all life and activity, self-sacrificing and fertile of resource; and it is not difficult to see where she is to find a correspondingly active husband. She has undertaken the full management of Mr. and Mrs. Fred and their children, not from choice, nor yet from heroism, but simply from necessity. They cannot look after themselves, and they must not starve. She therefore takes the whole family in charge, casting her own slender means into the common treasury. To Miss Wodehouse her conduct is merely incomprehensible; to Dr Edward it appears positively sinful. He proposes a very obvious means of relieving her, but she deems it a sheer impossibility. At first, and for a long time, the course of their love is so very much the reverse of smooth, that every one expects it to prove true love in the end. The obstacles to be got rid of are Mr. and Mrs. Fred and their "incumbrances," which the author contrives in the following convenient way: One night Fred is "found drowned" in a neighbouring canal—this leaves Mrs. Fred free to marry Mr. Chatham, a "big Bushman" and an old friend, with whom she retires to Australia; and thus the story closes, in the orthodox fashion, with the marriage of Nettie and Edward Rider.

Slight as the story is thus seen to be, it is told with great spirit and naturalness. The dialogue is well sustained; and there is considerable humour in the injured tone which Susan is made to assume, representing herself on all occasions as the most ill-used woman in the world. The best scenes in the book are those between Nettie and Dr. Edward. To understand the following, the reader should know that, before the appearance of the "big Bushman" on the scene, Mrs. Fred and Nettie have resolved to return to Australia. Edward hears of their intention from their officious landlady, Mrs. Smith, and sets off to St. Roque's to prevent its being carried out:—

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"Nettie did not hear the footstep which she might have recognised ringing rapidly down the frosty road. She was too busy rustling about with perpetual motion, folding and refolding, and smoothing into miraculous compactness all the heterogeneous elements of that mass. When a sudden knock came to the door she started, struck with alarm, then paused a moment, looking round her, and, perceiving at one hasty glance that nobody could possibly enter without seeing both herself and her occupation, made one prompt step to the door, which nobody appeared to open. It was Mrs. Smith, no doubt; but the sudden breathless flutter which came upon Nettie cast doubts upon that rapid conclusion. She opened it quickly, with a certain breathless, sudden promptitude, and looked out pale and dauntless, understanding by instinct that some new trial to her fortitude was there. On the other hand, Edward Rider pressed in suddenly, almost without perceiving it was Nettie. They were both standing in the hall together, before they fully recognised each other. Then the Doctor, gazing round him at the unusual confusion, gave an involuntary groan out of the depths of his heart. 'Then it is true!' said Dr. Rider. He stood among the chaos, and saw all his own dreams broken up and shattered in pieces. Even passion failed him in that first bitterness of conviction. Nettie stood opposite, with the sleeves of her black dress turned up from her little white nimble wrists, her hair pushed back from her cheeks, pushed quite behind one delicate ear, her eyes shining with all those lights of energy and purpose which came to them as soon as she took up her own character again. She met his eye with a little air of defiance, involuntary, and almost unconscious. 'It is quite true,' said Nettie, bursting forth in sudden self-justification; 'I have my work to do, and I must do it as best I can. I cannot keep considering you all, and losing my life. I must do what God has given me to do, or I must die.'

"Never had Nettie been so near breaking down, and falling into sudden womanish tears and despair. She would not yield to the overpowering momentary passion. She clutched at the bundle of frocks again, and made room for them spasmodically in the box which she had already packed. Edward Rider stood silent, gazing at her as in her sudden anguish Nettie pulled down and reconstructed that curious honeycomb. But he had not come here merely to gaze, while the catastrophe was preparing. He went up and seized her busy hands, raised her up in spite of her resistance, and thrust away, with an exclamation of disgust, that great box in which all his hopes were being packed away. 'There is first a question to settle between you and me,' cried the Doctor: 'you shall not do it. No! I forbid it, Nettie. Because you are wilful,' cried Edward Rider, hoarse and violent, grasping the hands tighter, with a strain in which other passions than love mingled, 'am I to give up all the rights of a man? You are going away without even giving me just warning—without a word, without a sign; and you think I will permit it, Nettie? Never—by Heaven!'

"'Dr. Edward,' said Nettie, trembling, half with terror, half with resolution, 'you have no authority over me. We are two people—we are not one. I should not have gone away without a word or a sign. I should have said good-bye to you, whatever had happened; but that is different from permitting or forbidding. Let us say good-bye now, and get it over, if that will please you better,' she cried, drawing her hands from his grasp; 'but I do not interfere with your business, and I must do mine my own way.'

"The Doctor was in no mood to argue. He thrust the big box she had packed away into a corner, and closed it with a vindictive clang. It gave him a little room to move in that little commonplace hall, with its dim lamp, which had witnessed so many of the most memorable scenes of his life. 'Look here,' cried Dr. Rider; 'authority has little to do with it. If you had been my wife, Nettie, to be sure you could not have deserted me. It is as great a cruelty—it is as hard upon me, this you are trying to do. I have submitted hitherto, and Heaven knows it has been bitter enough; and you scorn me for my submission,' said the doctor, making the discovery by instinct. 'When a fellow obeys you, it is only contempt you feel for him; but I tell you, Nettie, I will bear it no longer. You shall not go away. This is not to be. I will neither say good-bye nor think of it. What is your business is my business; and I declare to you, you shall not go unless I go too. Ah—I forgot. They tell me there is a fellow, an Australian, who ventures to pretend—I don't mean to say I believe it. You think *he* will not object to your

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burdens! Nettie! Don't let us kill each other. Let us take all the world on our shoulders,' cried the Doctor, drawing near again, with passionate looks, 'rather than part!'

"There was a pause—neither of them could speak at that moment. Nettie, who felt her resolution going, her heart melting, yet knew she dared not give way, clasped her hands tight in each other and stood trembling, yet refusing to tremble; collecting her voice and thoughts. The Doctor occupied that moment of suspense in a way which might have looked ludicrous in other circumstances, but was a relief to the passion that possessed him. He dragged the other vast Australian box to the same corner where he had set the first, and piled them one above the other. Then he collected with awkward care all the heaps of garments which lay about, and carried them off in the other direction to the stairs, where he laid them carefully with a clumsy tenderness. When he had swept away these incumbrances, as by a sudden gust of wind, he came back to Nettie, and once more clasped the firm hands which held each other fast. She broke away from him with a sudden cry—

"'You acknowledged that it was impossible!' cried Nettie. 'It is not my doing, or anybody's; no one shall take the world on his shoulders for my sake—I ask nobody to bear my burdens. Thank you for not believing it—that is a comfort at least. Never, surely, any one else—and not you, not you! Dr. Edward, let us make an end of it. I will never consent to put my yoke upon your shoulders, but I—I will never forget you or blame you—any more. It is all hard, but we cannot help it. Good-bye—don't make it harder, you, who are the only one that——; good-bye,—no more—don't say any more.'"

3. We have never been able to sympathize with those wise and serious critics, who, while the *Water-Babies* was in course of periodical publication, periodically condemned it as stupid and trifling. It has delighted us as much as if we had been one of those "other good little boys" to whom, along with Mr. Kingsley's youngest son, the book is dedicated. We have found it full of wit and wisdom, rich in the freshness of nature, and the wonders of the shore and of the deep. The chief aim of the book appears to be to interest young people in the wonderful creatures of the sea, by introducing them as *dramatis personæ*, and making the wondrous changes they undergo take the place of "transformation scenes" in the grand sub-marine pantomime. But if we have divined aright all the author's purposes, there is in the book something deeper than this. We do not refer merely to the lessons of kindness and obedience and forethought which, under cover of a fairy tale, he seeks to teach to "land-babies," but to the vein of good-humoured satire on the pretensions of modern science, and the extravagances of modern education, which run through the story.

The hero water-baby, who begins by being a land-baby, is a mischievous little chimney-sweep named Tom, who, having "once upon a time" gone down the wrong chimney at The Place, frightens a little lady out of her wits, jumps out of window in his alarm, runs over Harthover Fells, falls into the river, and is at once turned into a water-baby. The elaborate argument hereupon following, for the existence of water-babies, is a fine specimen of mock scientific reasoning, in which M. Du Chaillu, Professors Owen and Huxley, and other celebrities, get their share of sly complimentary quizzing. The author then narrates the exploits of Tom amongst cadises, trout, alder-flies, caperers, duns, spinners, efts, otters, salmon, seals, sea-snails, shrimps,

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lobsters, and other gems of "the far off caves of ocean," with most of whom he is upon excellent, though with some upon fearful terms. One of the earliest of the strange sights that Tom encounters is the metamorphosis of the dragon-fly, which is thus described:—

"Then he went on, sulky and lonely, as he deserved to be; and under a bank he saw a very ugly, dirty creature sitting, about half as big as himself; which had six legs, and a big stomach, and a most ridiculous head, with two great eyes, and a face just like a donkey's.

"'Oh,' said Tom, 'you are an ugly fellow, to be sure!' and he began making faces at him; and put his nose close to him, and halloed at him, like a very rude boy.

"When, hey presto! all the thing's donkey-face came off in a moment, and out popped a long arm, with a pair of pincers at the end of it, and caught Tom by the nose. It did not hurt him much; but it held him quite tight.

"'Yah, ah! Oh, let me go!' cried Tom.

"'Then let me go,' said the creature. 'I want to be quiet. I want to split.'

"Tom promised to let him alone, and he left go. 'Why do you want to split?' said Tom.

"'Because my brothers and sisters have all split, and turned into beautiful creatures with wings; and I want to split to. Don't speak to me. I am sure I shall split. I will split!'

"Tom stood still, and watched him. And he swelled himself, and puffed, and stretched himself out stiff, and at last—crack, puff, bang—he opened all down his back, and then up to the top of his head.

"And out of his inside came the most slender, elegant, soft creature, as soft and smooth as Tom: but very pale and weak, like a little child who has been ill a long time in a dark room. And it moved its legs very feebly; and looked about it half ashamed, like a girl when she goes for the first time into a ball-room; and then it began walking slowly up a grass stem to the top of the water.

"Tom was so astonished that he never said a word; but he stared with all his eyes. And he went up to the top of the water too, and peeped out to see what would happen.

"And as the creature sat in the warm bright sun, a wonderful change came over it. It grew strong and firm; and the most lovely colours began to show on its body; blue and yellow and black; spots and bars and rings; and out of its back rose four great wings of bright brown gauze; and its eyes grew so large that they filled all its head, and shone like ten thousand diamonds.

"'Oh, you beautiful creature!' said Tom; and he put out his hand to catch it.

"But the thing whirred up into the air, and hung poised on its wings a moment, and then settled down again by Tom quite fearless.

"'No,' it said, "you cannot catch me. I am a dragon-fly now, the king of all the flies; and I shall dance in the sunshine, and hawk over the river, and catch gnats, and have a beautiful wife like myself. I know what I shall do. Hurrah!' And he flew away into the air, and began catching gnats."

Still more amusing is the following transformation scene, which comes upon Tom before he has recovered from the shock which that just narrated gave to his aquatic nerves:—

"He was basking at the top of the water one hot day in July, catching duns and feeding the trout, when he saw a new sort, a dark grey little fellow, with a brown head. He was a very little fellow indeed; but he made the most of himself, as people ought to do. He cocked up his head, and he cocked up his wings, and he cocked up his tail, and he cocked up his two whisks at his tail-end, and, in short, he looked the cockiest little man of all little men. And so he proved to be; for instead of getting away, he hopped upon Tom's finger, and sat there as bold as nine tailors; and he cried out in the tiniest, shrillest, squeakiest little voice you ever heard,

"'Much obliged to you, indeed; but I don't want it yet.'

"'Want what?' said Tom, quite taken aback by his impudence.

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"'Your leg, which you are kind enough to hold out for me to sit on. I must just go and see after my wife for a few minutes. Dear me! what a troublesome business a family is!' (though the idle little rogue did nothing at all, but left his poor wife to lay all the eggs by herself.) 'When I come back, I shall be glad of it, if you 'll be so good as to keep it sticking out just so;' and off he flew.

"Tom thought him a very cool sort of personage; and still more so, when in five minutes he came back, and said—'Ah, you were tired waiting? Well, your other leg will do as well.'

"And he popped himself down on Tom's knee, and began chatting away in his squeaking voice.

"'So you live under the water? It 's a dirty low place. I lived there for some time; and was very shabby and dirty. But I didn't choose that that should last. So I turned respectable, and came up to the top, and put on this grey suit. It 's a very business-like suit, you think, don't you?'

"'Very neat and quiet indeed,' said Tom.

"'Yes, one must be quiet, and neat, and respectable, and all that sort of thing for a little, when one becomes a family man. But I 'm tired of it, that's the truth. I 've done quite enough business, I consider, in the last week, to last me my life. So I shall put on a ball-dress, and go out, and be a smart man, and see the gay world, and have a dance or two. Why shouldn't one be jolly if one can?'

"'And what will become of your wife?'

"'Oh! she is a very plain stupid creature, and that's the truth; and thinks about nothing but eggs. If she chooses to come, why she may; and if not, why I go without her;—and here I go.'

"And, as he spoke, he turned quite pale, and then quite white.

"'Why, you're ill!' said Tom. But he did not answer.

"'You're dead,' said Tom, looking at him as he stood on his knee as white as a ghost.

"'No I ain't!' answered a little squeaking voice over his head. 'This is me up here, in my ball-dress: and that's my skin. Ha, ha! you could not do such a trick as that!'

"And no more Tom could, nor Houdin, nor Robin, nor Frikell, nor all the conjurors in the world. For the little rogue had jumped clean out of his own skin, and left it standing on Tom's knee, eyes, wings, legs, tails, exactly as if it had been alive.

"'Ha, ha!' he said, and he jerked and skipped up and down, never stopping an instant, just as if he had St. Vitus's dance. 'Ain't I a pretty fellow now?'

"And so he was; for his body was white, and his tail orange, and his eyes all the colours of a peacock's tail. And what was the oddest of all, the whisks at the end of his tail had grown five times as long as they were before."

Tom then makes his way down to the sea, where, after much vain searching and inquiring, he at last finds his "people," the water-babies. They are visited every Friday by Mrs. Be-done-by-as-you-did, the retributive fairy, who rewards them according to their past conduct; and as Tom has been in the habit of tickling the madrepores, and frightening the crabs, and putting stones in the anemones' mouths to make them think their dinner was coming, the stern fairy pays him back in kind. On his remonstrating, the ugly fairy tells him that it is not her fault, as she is wound-up inside like a watch, and cannot help doing things, whether she likes or not. That the water-babies may not be left altogether to themselves, however, they are visited on Sundays by this fairy's sister, Mrs. Do-as-you-would-be-done-by, whose functions, as her name indicates, are didactic and premonitory; and in her hands Tom becomes a very good and docile water-baby indeed.

One of the most amusing digressions in the book is that in which

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one of the fairies shows Tom a book of wonderful water-photographs, containing the history of the great and famous nation of the Do-as-you-likes, who came away from the country of Hard-work, because they wanted to play on the Jew's-harp all day long; and who spend their time sitting under "flap-doodle" trees, so as to let the flap doodle drop into their mouths. In five hundred years a mountain blows up, sending one-third of the Doasyoulikes into the air, and smothering another third of them in the ashes. The third part who remain have to live on nuts and roots, because the flap-doodle trees were all burned. After other five hundred years, they are found living up trees, and building nests to keep out the rain. But, on the principle of "natural selection," it was only "the strongest" that could get out of the way of the lions that prowled about below; so every century they got fewer, and stronger, and fiercer; their toes begin to grow into thumbs; they gradually get hairy; their whole form changes, till that at last Tom exclaims:—

"'Why, I declare they are all apes.'

"'Something very like it, poor foolish creatures,' said the fairy. 'They are grown so stupid now, that they can hardly think: for none of them have used their wits for many hundred years, and they have almost forgotten how to talk. For each stupid child forgot some of the words it heard from its stupid parents, and had not wits enough to make fresh words for itself. And besides, they are grown so fierce, so suspicious, and brutal, that they keep out of each other's way, and mope, and sulk in the dark forests, never hearing each other's voice, till they have forgotten almost what speech is like. I am afraid they will all be apes very soon, and all by doing what they liked.'

"'And in the next five hundred years they were all dead and gone, by bad, good, and wild beasts, and hunters, all except one tremendous old fellow, with jaws like a jack, who stood full seven feet high; and M. Du Chaillu came up to him, and shot him as he stood roaring and thumping his breast. And he remembered that his ancestors had once been men, and tried to say, 'am I not a man and a brother?' but he had forgotten how to use his tongue; and then he had tried to call for a doctor, but he had forgotten the word for one. So all he said was 'Ubboboo!' and died.

"And that was the end of the great and jolly nation of the Doasyoulikes."

The drift of all this cannot be mistaken; neither can that of the many thrusts at social and educational foibles into which the author throws special zest. When Tom's master shows some pardonable stupidity, it is added, "Whereby you may perceive that Mr. Grimes had not been to a properly inspected Government National School." When Tom becomes a water-baby, we are told that—

"Tom was now quite amphibious. You do not know what that means? You had better, then, ask the nearest Government pupil-teacher, who may possibly answer you smartly enough, thus—

"'Amphibious. Adjective, derived from two Greek words, *amphi*, a fish, and *bios*, a beast. An animal supposed by our ignorant ancestors to be compounded of a beast and a fish; which, therefore, like the hippopotamus, can't live on the land, and dies in the water.'"

Little Ellie Harthover's scientific education is intrusted to Professor Ptthmllnsprts, Professor of Necrobioneopalæonthydrochthonanthropopithekology, in the new university of the King of the Cannibal Islands. But we suspect that Mr. Kingsley's scientific enthusiasts are

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more responsible than the old-fashioned educationists for the modern fallacy he satirizes, when he tells us that "in the old times, you must understand, children were taught to know one thing, and to know it well; but in these enlightened new times, they are taught to know a little about everything, and to know it all ill, which is a great deal pleasanter and easier, and therefore quite right." We are not sure but there may be found here and there a few examples of the educational Utopia sketched in "Dr. Dulcimer's famous suburban establishment for the idler members of the youthful aristocracy, where the masters learn the lessons, and the boys hear them,—which saves a great deal of trouble, for the time being." There is one other passage which, notwithstanding its length, we must quote for its educational value: there are some sad truths under the cover of its extravagant fun:—

"Then Tom came to a very famous island, which was called, in the days of the great traveller, Captain Gulliver, the Isle of Laputa. But Mrs. Bedoneby-asyoudid has named it over again, the Isle of Tomtoddies, all heads and no bodies.

"And when Tom came near it, he heard such a grumbling and grunting, and growling and wailing, and weeping and whining, that he thought people must be ringing little pigs, or cropping puppies' ears, or drowning kittens; but when he came nearer still, he began to hear words among the noise; which was the Tomtoddies' song which they sing morning and evening, and all night too, to their great idol Exami-nation—

"'I can't learn my lesson: the examiner's coming!'

"And that was the only song which they knew.

"And when Tom got on shore the first thing he saw was a great pillar, on one side of which was inscribed, 'Playthings not allowed here,' at which he was so shocked, that he would not stay to see what was written on the other side. Then he looked round for the people of the island; but, instead of men, women, and children, he found nothing but turnips and radishes, beet and mangold-wurzel, without a single green leaf among them, and half of them burst and decayed, with toadstools growing out of them. Those which were left began crying to Tom, in half-a dozen different languages at once, and all of them badly spoken, 'I can't learn my lesson; do come and help me!' And one cried, 'Can you show me how to extract this square-root?'

"And another, 'Can you tell me the distance between α Lyrae and β Camelopardalis?'

"And another, 'What is the latitude and longitude of Snooksville, in Noman's County, Oregon, U.S.?'

"And another, 'What was the name of Mutius Scævola's thirteenth cousin's grandmother's maid's cat?'

"And another, 'How long would it take a school-inspector of average activity to tumble head over heels from London to York?'

"And another, 'Can you tell me the name of a place that nobody ever heard of, where nothing ever happened, in a country which has not been discovered yet?'

"And another, 'Can you show me how to correct this hopelessly corrupt passage of Gradiocolosyrtus Tabenni-ticus, on the cause why crocodiles have no tongues?'

"And so on, and so on, and so on, till one would have thought they were all trying for tide-waiters' places, or cornetcies in the heavy dragoons.

"'And what good on earth will it do you, if I did tell you?' quoth Tom.

"Well, they didn't know that: all they knew was, the examiner was coming.

"Then Tom stumbled on the hugest and softest nimblecomequick turnip you ever saw filling a hole in a crop of Swedes, and it cried to him, 'Can you tell me anything at all about anything you like?'

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"'About what?' says Tom.

"'About anything you like; for as fast as I learn things, I forget them again. So my mamma says that my intellect is not adapted for methodic science, and says that I must go in for general information.'

"Tom told him that he did not know General Infor-mation, nor any officers in the army; only he had a friend once that went for a drummer; but he could tell him a great many things which he had seen in his travels.

"So he told him prettily enough, while the poor turnip listened very carefully; and the more he listened, the more he forgot, and the more water ran out of him.

"Tom thought he was crying; but it was only his poor brains running away, from being worked so hard; and as Tom talked, the unhappy turnip streamed down all over with juice, and split and shrank till nothing was left of him but rind and water; whereat Tom ran away in a fright, for he thought he might be taken up for killing the turnip.

"But, on the contrary, the turnip's parents were highly delighted, and considered him a saint and martyr, and put up a long inscription on his tomb about his wonderful talents, early development, and unparalleled precocity. Were they not a foolish couple? But there was a still more foolish couple next to them, who were beating a wretched little radish, no bigger than my thumb, for sullenness and obstinacy and wilful stupidity, and never knew that the reason why it couldn't learn, or hardly even speak, was, that there was a great worm inside it eating out all its brains. But even they are no foolisher than some hnndred score of papas and mammas, who fetch the rod when they ought to fetch a new toy, and send to the dark cupboard instead of to the doctor.

"Tom was so puzzled and frightened with all he saw, that he was longing to ask the meaning of it; and at last he stumbled over a respectable old stick, lying half covered with earth. But a very stout and worthy stick it was, for it belonged to good Roger Ascham in old time, and had carved on its head King Edward the Sixth, with the Bible in his hand.

"'You see,' said the stick, 'there were as pretty little children once as you could wish to see, and might have been so still, if they had been only left to grow up like human beings, and then handed over to me; but their foolish fathers and mothers, instead of letting them pick flowers, and make dirt-pies, and get birds' nests, and dance round the gooseberry-bush, as little children should, kept them always at lessons, working, working, working, learning week-day lesson all week-days, and Sunday lessons all Sunday, and weekly examinations every Saturday, and monthly examinations every month, and yearly examinations every year, everything seven times over, as if once was not enough, and enough as good as a feast—till their brains grew big, and their bodies grew small, and they were all changed into turnips, with little but water inside; and still their foolish parents actually pick the leaves off them as fast as they grow, lest they should have anything green about them.'

"'Oh!' said Tom, 'if dear Mrs. Doasyouwouldbedoneby knew of it she would send them a lot of tops, and balls, and marbles, and ninepins, and make them all as jolly as sand-boys.'

"'It would be no use,' said the stick. 'They can't play now, if they tried. Don't you see how their legs have turned to roots and grown into the ground, by never taking any exercise, but sapping and moping always in the same place? But here comes the Examiner-of-all-examiners. So you had better get away, I warn you, or he will examine you, and your dog into the bargain, and set him to examine all the other dogs, and you to examine all the other water-babies. There is no escaping out of his hands, for his nose is nine thousand miles long, and can go down chimneys and through key-holes, upstairs, downstairs, in my lady's chamber, examining all little boys, and the little boy's tutors likewise. But when he is thrashed—so Mrs. Bedonebyasyoudid has promised me—I shall have the thrashing of him; and if I don't lay it on with a will, it 's a pity.'

"Tom went off: but rather slowly and surlily; for he was somewhat minded to face the same examiner of all examiners, who came striding among the poor turnips, binding heavy burdens and grievous to be borne, and laying them on little children's shoulders, like the Scribes and Pharisees of old, and not touching the

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same with one of his fingers; for he had plenty of money, and a fine house to live in, and so forth; which was more than the poor little turnips had.

"But when he got near, he looked so big and burly and dictatorial, and shouted so loud to Tom to come and be examined, that Tom ran for his life, and the dog too. And really it was time; for the poor turnips, in their hurry and fright, crammed themselves so fast to be ready for the examiner, that they burst and popped by dozens all round him, till the place sounded like Aldershott on a field-day, and Tom thought he should be blown into the air, dog and all.

"As he went down to the shore he passed the poor turnip's new tomb. But Mrs. Bedonebyasyoudid had taken away the epitaph about talents and precocity and development, and put up one of her own instead, which Tom thought much more sensible:—

"'Instruction sore long time I bore,
And cramming was in vain;
Till Heaven did please my woes to ease,
By water on the brain.'

"So Tom jumped into the sea, and swam on his way, singing:—

"'Farewell, Tomtoddies all; I thank my stars,
That nought I know save those three royal r's:
Reading and riting sure, with rithmetick,
Will help a lad of sense through thin and thick.'

"Whereby you may see that Tom was no poet: but no more was John Bunyan, though he was as wise a man as you will meet in a month of Sundays."

Apart from these incidental allusions, however, and read simply as a fairy tale, this is a capital story for children; full of humour which they can understand, and of wonderful adaptations of nature, which will both amuse and instruct them. Like all good fairy tales, it begins with the orthodox "Once upon a time;" like all good fairy tales, also, it ends with a good moral, which advises all land-babies to be kind to animals and insects, to work hard, and to keep themselves clean,—which seems to be the whole duty of a little muscular Christian.

4. No reader will be surprised that the attribute "Strange" is added to the *Adventures of Captain Dangerous* when he reads, in the sub-title, that he "was a Soldier, a Sailor, a Merchant, a Spy, a Slave among the Moors, a Bashaw in the service of the Grand Turk, and died at last in his own house in Hanover Square." We might have thought the incidents "exaggerated and distorted," or even "strained and dull," without the author's suggestion to that effect; but he solemnly assures us that, although he is "responsible for the thread of the story and the conduct of the narrative, there is not one fact set down as having marked the career of the Captain that has been drawn from imagination. For the story of Arabella Greenville, for the sketch of the Unknown Lady, for the exploits of the Blacks in Charlwood Chase, for the history of Mother Drum, for the Voyage round the World, for the details of the Execution of Lord Lovat and Damiens, for the description of the state of a Christian Captive among the Moors, I am indebted, not to a lively fancy, but to books of travel, memoirs, Acts of Parliament, and old newspapers and magazines;" all of which has been "the result of years of weary plodding and note-taking through hundreds of dusty tomes." This may be all very true; and it relieves

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Mr. Sala from the charge of having strained his lively inventive genius in the forecasting of all the wonderful scenes in these volumes. But it does not get quit of the charge of exaggeration in another form,—in a form which bears precisely upon that part of the work for which he declares himself "responsible,"—the exaggeration, namely, of bringing together in the life of one man a series of exploits, and a variety of circumstances, sufficient to have made half-a-dozen daring adventurers.

Neither is the "thread of the story" very deftly spun. There is in the earlier chapters a great deal of awkward skipping about, from the Captain to his Grandmother, then back to the Captain again, then to his Grandfather's history, then again to his Grandmother's (who had died two chapters ago): and we are just on the point of solving the mystery of her marriage, when the narrative abruptly breaks off, and we are brought back again to the never failing John Dangerous. Probably this is part of the garrulous old Captain's character; but it is unfortunate for his book. This also, we suspect, is connected with the exaggeration above objected to. Mr. Sala has accumulated too much material in his "years of weary plodding," and has not taken sufficient pains to winnow, condense, and thoroughly arrange it.

It were hardly possible to give, within reasonable limits, any outline of the Captain's adventures more satisfactory than that contained in the sub-title already quoted. The book is full of the liveliest and most varied interest; and if the style is somewhat prolix and affected, this is to be put down to the author's design of telling the story "in old-fashioned English." We should add that Mr. Sala's preface—not in very good taste at the best—concludes with the happily rare, and never very successful, device of an *ad misericordiam* appeal to the critics, telling them that, if any one is inclined to be hard upon him, "there could not possibly occur a better opportunity than the present for kicking me *de novo*, as I have been for many months ill, and am weary and broken."

5. The work we have just been noticing suffers sadly from the want of a well-constructed and continuous plot. The force and unity of interest which such a plot gives to a work not otherwise of the highest class is well illustrated in Mr. Jeaffreson's *Live it Down*, a novel of fashionable and middle-class life in a provincial town in the last century. Apart from its plot, the work has a social value, as exhibiting the transition from the last stages of a gay and thoughtless state of "society," to the soberer, more industrious, and more earnest life of the present century. The moral and religious changes brought about in Merton-Pigott by the persevering efforts of a new Rector, of the modern evangelical school, are made, with equal force and truth, to produce rich social fruits, breaking down the "sets" into which the community had been divided, and bringing all classes into closer harmony. This transition is reflected in the tone of the book itself, which is at first disappointing from its levity, but deepens in moral earnestness as it nears its close.

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The book prepares us by its very title for some great slander which is to be "lived down;" and so it is. The plot turns upon a secret misfortune, the publishing of which would seriously affect the credit and character of an old county family, the Turrets of the Hollow House in the Light Lands. This secret, which the old Squire and his daughter believe to be known to them alone, and which they hope to "live down" in their seclusion, becomes somehow known (how, does not precisely appear, and this is the weak point in the plot) to a notorious black-leg, the "Devil" of the piece; and he uses it for the purpose of extorting hush-money in large sums from the Squire's grandson Edgar, whom also the secret closely affects. The pecuniary and personal embarrassments in which these and other circumstances involve our hero, bring him nothing but disrepute, and lead to slanderous misconstructions of his conduct, which he is not at liberty to refute, though he also is resolved to "live them down." In the end, however, he is delivered from all his troubles; the hero and the heroine are married in the third volume, and they "live happy and die happy" in the time honoured way.

The construction of the plot, notwithstanding one or two obvious faults, is on the whole superior to the delineation of the characters, which in the main want force and distinctness. The best drawn portrait is that of John Bromhead, the dissenting coal-merchant and ex-lawyer, and father of the heroine. It is that of a man in whom religious enthusiasm (for it is hardly conviction) has failed to eradicate his essential selfishness; and in whom these two principles are alternately overcoming and strengthening one another. It would have been better had Mr. Jeaffreson simply told his story, without importing into it the tedious historical contrasts between the "now" and "then" of English society. Certainly the book has a good story to tell.

We are compelled to leave unnoticed several other works of fiction, which we had hoped to include in our present list. Especially do we regret our inability to refer at greater length to Miss Mulock's *Mistress and Maid*—a well-written story with an excellent tendency—and to *The Story of Elizabeth* (we suppose it is no secret that it is Miss Thackeray's), a book which is growing in public favour, as it deserves. As for the sensation novels, the fact that such books are published, and greedily devoured, is almost the only notice which they can claim in a review even of current literature. They have been cleverly disposed of, though quite incidentally, by Mr. Punch, in the preface to his last volume, where, addressing Father Nile, he says: "Do you know that you remind me of a sensation novel; *when the secret's out, there's nothing in it.*"

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X. REVIEWS AND NOTICES OF BOOKS.

I. CLASSICAL.

P. Vergilii Maronis Opera. Vol. ii. With a Commentary by JOHN CONINGTON, M.A. Whittaker & Co.; Bell & Daldy: London.

THIS second volume of Conington's Vergil adds new prestige to the *Bibliotheca Classica*. It excels the first volume of the Vergil in value and finish, and is very far superior in merit to a great number of editions, in the same series, which might be particularized. In his first volume Professor Conington evinced patient research, accurate scholarship, nice judgment, with no small amount of poetic feeling; and all these features reappear in the second, the more confirmed and indelible by reason of accession of experience, and the operation of external influences. Though in some sort the annotator of the *Æneid* breaks new ground, it is no little help to him to have travelled observantly and step by step through the *Eclogues* and the *Georgics* beforehand. And the separate publication of these, some five years ago, has secured for the editor's second volume hints of great value, derived from the friendly criticism of that most competent Latin scholar, Mr. H. A. J. Munro. Besides availing himself of these, Mr. Conington has had for this volume the valuable *apparatus criticus* of Otto Ribbeck to refer to; and as this is new since 1858, here again is an advantage denied to the first volume, in accurate collations of most important MSS. Not, indeed, that to an editor lacking Professor Conington's tact and discernment Ribbeck's edition would be an unmixed boon. We quite concur in the just remarks, passed in the preface and commentary of the edition before us, on the worse than needless emendations, and unhappy attempts to point out interpolations and lacunæ, which detract from Ribbeck's value as an editor. One instance of the former will suffice, his suggestion on the difficult line, *Æn.* i. 396:—

"Aut capere, aut captas jam despectare, videntur,"

to read "capsos jam respectare." The rare and unvirgilian word, "capsos," means "pens for animals of any kind," and suggests nothing at all that can lighten the difficulties of the passage; besides which, the occurrence of "capere" just before makes it pretty certain that the poet wrote "captas," and nothing else. What the precise interpretation of the text may be, is another question, and Conington is safe in preferring Burmann's view, that "captas" is *i.q.* "captas ab altera cycnorum parte;" "some alight, others still hover in air, and look down on those which have just alighted." Ribbeck's fancy for imagining lacunæ and interpolations, and such crotchets as his bracketing in i. 188 the words "Quæ tela gerebat Achates," and taking it, with Peerlcamp, for a "tibicen," or "stop-gap," would scarce deserve notice, but that on such instances as this last Mr. Conington brings to bear his usual common sense, when he notes that these words are not *de trop*, not words which the poet would have thrust out, on revision of his poem, but "that they mark the accidental character of the affair," and show that the capture of the stags, through the circumstance of Achates carrying the "arcum sagittasque," was "an accidental piece of good fortune." For examination of the relative value of various readings Ribbeck's volumes must have been very useful to Mr Conington; though whether he has lost aught by the delay in publication of that editor's prolegomena, we are inclined to doubt, when we look at some of the questionable emendations which it is reserved for them to bolster up. A more reliable guide in interpretation has been Dr. Henry, to which able, if eccentric, critic's always interesting "Notes of a Twelve Year's

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Voyage of Discovery in the First Six Books of the Æneis" Mr. Conington has given diligent consideration. Often where he dissents, we feel inclined to side with the Doctor; but there is always a great deal to be said for both; and Mr. Conington's appreciation of this odd-looking but really valuable commentary is as creditable to himself as to its author. Both generally agree in condemning over-fanciful interpretations, *e.g.*, that of Ruæus on *Æn.* i. 126, where "alto prospiciens" is taken to mean "in care for the main," a translation which strangely enough Dryden endorses in his version, "And fearing for his watery reign," and still more strangely C. R. Kennedy, in his "Yet caring for his empire." No one can doubt that Henry and Conington rightly concur in interpreting it "Looking out over the high sea." On *Æn.* i. 249, both again coincide in the sound opinion that there "compŏstus" has nothing to do with death. Of the two, however, as all who have studied both commentators will allow, Conington is the safer guide, owing to his unfailing common-sense. For example, he is led by it to repudiate Henry's far-fetched notion, that in *Æn.* i. 364, "Pygmalionis opes" means "the resources, strength, and substance consequent on the wealth of Pygmalion;" and to refer it, as "portantur" and "avari" show that it should be referred, to "aurum." So, too, he is right in doubting, or at any rate in requiring justification of, Henry's interpretation of "crispans," "clenching," in i. 313, which rests pretty much on the analogy of the French "cresper," and on one or two Latin poets of the later empire. In further proof of Conington's safe judgment, we refer the reader to his grounds for reading "despiciens" in preference to the "dispiciens" of Ribbeck and Lachmann in *Æn.* i. 224: for repudiating Ribbeck's "pollicitu's" in i. 237, and preferring "componat" to "componet," in i. 374. He is to be followed too, we think, in explaining the words "falsâ sub proditione" (ii. 83,) "under a false information," a simple sense supported by Ovid *Amor.* II. viii. 25, and Juvenal x. 69; but scorned by most commentators, perhaps for its very simplicity. Just above, at v. 60, perhaps it would have been better to look for the explanation of "Hoc ipsum ut strueret," in the following words, "Troiamque aperiret Achivis" (the *que* being manifestly epexegetic), than, as has been done, to refer it to the former line, and to note upon it "hoc ipsum, *i.e.*, to be brought before the king." In ii. 353, "Moriamur, et in media arma ruamus" is to be explained in the same way, *et* being there epexegetic. Conington says, "This is not exactly a case of ὕστερον πρότερον. The first thing Æneas had to do was to tell his comrades to die, the next to tell them how to die." We agree in denying that there is any ὕστερον πρότερον, but taking *et* as epexegetic, we translate, "Let us die by rushing into the midst of the battle."

But there is little for question, nothing for dispraise or blame, in the volume before us. It is a godsend to have a commentator who reads and treasures up English poetry. Proofs of this occur everywhere in Mr. Conington's commentary, few happier, perhaps, than his illustration of the sense which he attaches to "armis," in *Æn.* iv. 11. "Quam forti pectore, et *armis*," *i.e.* shoulders, by referring to Tennyson's *Idylls*, where Enid says of her sleeping Lord, "O noble breast and all-puissant arms." It is a still greater boon to find a commentator whose learning and research is tempered with judgment and discretion. And this, had we space, we could point out, abundantly exhibited, in the volume we are reviewing. Take his manner of handling the difficult passage of the Sixth Book, beginning "Quisque suos patimur Manes" (743, etc.), and it will be impossible to undervalue the care, research, and fairness, which he applies to its unravelling. Our limits forbid us to do more than draw attention to it. On another hard passage (iii. 684-6) :—

> "Contra jussa monent Heleni, Scyllam atque Charybdim.
> Inter, utramque viam lethi discrimine parvo,
> Ni teneant cursus,"

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his note leaves little to be desired. He takes "ni," for "ne" on the authority of Plautus and Donatus; and holds "utramque viam" to be a kind of cognate accusative, expressing the effect of "ni teneant cursus." Thus he translates: "On the other hand, the injunctions of Helenus warn us not to hold on our way between Scylla and Charybdis, either passage a hair's-breadth remove from death." In one respect we prefer to follow Henry, viz., in separating "utramque" from "viam," and connecting the latter with "lethi," *i.e.*, each (Scylla and Charybdis) the almost sure road to death. The chief difficulty, as Conington says, lies in "teneant." If it stands, we should look for its subject in "vela," just above, but we might almost adopt the conjecture of Heinsius "teneam." How Ribbeck will justify his emendation, "Scylla atque Charybdis" in his prolegomena, we cannot divine. We have no room for notice of Mr. Conington's able introduction, and its valuable matter on the influence of the Greek tragedians on Virgil's *Æneis*, and on his debt to Apollonius Rhodius. But we regret this the less, because every student, mature or immature, should get and study Conington's Vergil, which we long to see completed. It is a credit to Oxford and to England. It must command the respect of the sister University, which is not always ready to think highly of Oxford scholarship: and it will show the Germans, to whom our debt for classical commentaries has been long and large, that, with our present growth of scholars, we are in a fair way of being able to "walk alone." One thing we wish, that there was as fair a prospect of England rivalling Germany in the cheapness, as in the excellence, of her classical texts and commentaries; in which case we should be disposed to augur the happiest results from English scholarship, "bred and fed" at home.

Britanno-Roman Inscriptions. With Critical Notes. By the Rev. JOHN M'CAUL, LL.D., President of the University College, Toronto. Toronto: Rowsell. London: Longmans. 1863.

THIS learned work of a professor at Toronto proves that the studies which delight literary men in Great Britain, are pursued with no less keen interest, in spite of hindrance and discouragement, abroad. An English scholar, if he gets beyond the range of railways, postpones his learned researches till his return to literary centres. He must have his books, manuscripts, museums, learned societies, hard at hand. But here we have a Canadian Doctor surmounting the obstacles to inquiry presented by lack of books of reference, and, in that far-off land, interpreting from his slender materials the Roman inscriptions existing in our English counties. It would be a wonder if, at home, a man with his ears open failed to pick up a fair acquaintance with local archæology and epigraphy. But the volume before us exhibits the phenomenon of mature and comprehensive research into these subjects by one, whose quest of such knowledge must have been attended with unusual difficulty. He discusses epitaphs which have puzzled learned antiquaries, and emends doubtful inscriptions with a sagacity freely acknowledged by his brethren on this side the Atlantic. Readers of his book, too, will be constrained to admit, that with Dr. M'Caul all is not guesswork, but that his study of epigraphy reflects light upon classical literature, not less than it derives from it. An instance or two of the learned Doctor's manner of elucidating the Britanno-Roman inscriptions, which look (*vide* pp. ix.-xlviii.) at first sight as hieroglyphical as cunning men's charms for toothache, or the "rheumatis," is the most our space will allow.

The gist of the volume is in 260 pages of notes on the Britanno-Roman inscriptions found in our island, according to the alphabetical order of the counties. It presupposes some knowledge of inscription lore, *e.g.*, such as

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may be gleaned from Mr. Wright's *Celt, Roman, and Saxon*, a book which gives the best and clearest general view of ancient British remains brought to light by recent research we know of. From Mr. Wright's views Dr. M'Caul often differs; and it is a feather in Dr. M'Caul's cap, that that deservedly popular and genial antiquary has frankly accepted many of his suggestions and emendations.

We select inscriptions in Gloucestershire, Monmouthshire, and Shropshire, not because these are richest in Roman remains, but because Isca Silurum and Uriconium interest us in the second and third; and the site of the Roman villa at Lydney Park, the seat of the late able and accomplished Mr. C. Bathurst, claims notice for the first. Here have been found three inscriptions, each containing the name of a god unknown to our "Pantheon." "Nodons" or Nodens" figures thrice as a dative, once as a genitive. Lysons (*Romans in Gloucestershire*) makes him the same as Æsculapius, because statues of that god are found there, as well as his peculiar offerings, the cock, the dog, the serpent twining round the staff. He finds another clue in the Greek attribute νώδυνος or ἀνώδυνος. Mr. Franks, an able antiquary, calls "Nodons" the British Æsculapius. Against this Dr. M'Caul submits that he knows no instance of the application of the above attributive epithet to Æsculapius. The deity may have been British, or imported into Britain by foreign auxiliaries of Rome. Stating the opinions of the best antiquaries, testing the inscriptions, and throwing light upon them, he comes to the conclusion that "Nodens" may have been the Nodutis or Nodutus mentioned by Arnobius and Augustine, as a rural god presiding over "nodi culmorum." As dogs, cocks, and serpents are found as offerings to him, this god (thinks our author) may have been the god of healing—presiding over vegetable "nodi" as well as animal, "nodi culmorum" as well as gout and rheumatism, and joint-ailments. Much of this is conjecture. But the Doctor's examination of the four inscriptions developes much that is ingenious and fruitful. "Armatura," in No. 1, must mean "Levis armaturæ miles." In the 6th line of No. 3, the obscure INTER QUIBUS is proved to be an abbreviation of "Interamnati," *h.e.*, "A dweller between the Severn and the Wye," an apt epithet of the Nodens, whose temple was in Lydney Park. This word is extracted from the defective VICTORINO INTER . . . . ATE, *h.e.*, Interamnate in the 4th inscription.

A sepulchral stone near Caerleon is thus inscribed, and thus translated by Mr. Wright (*Celt, Roman, and Saxon*, p. 320):—

DM.	To the Gods of the Shades
JULIA . VENERI .	Julia Veneria
A . AN . XXXII .	aged 33 years,
I . ALESAN . CON	Alexander her husband
PIENTISSIMA	most attached,
ET I BELICIANUS	And Julius Belicianus,
F . MONIME	her son, this monument
F . C.	caused to be made.

Here Dr. M'Caul objects that "I" in line 3 stands for "Julius;" "con pientissima" for "conjugi pientissimæ;" "Belicianus" for "Felicianus;" and that for "Monime" we should read M . OPTIME, "matri optimæ." Thus we get "Julius Alexander to his most loving wife," etc., etc., "and Julius Felicianus to his excellent mother, caused this memorial to be made." In his able *Isca Silurum*, Mr. Lee accepts the two former emendations, but dissents from the Doctor's M . OPTIME. We agree with the Doctor that while "monim" might be an abbreviation of "monumentum," "monime" could hardly be so. In Burgon's *Letters from Rome*, the occurrence of BELLICIA and BENTVRAS for Felicia and Venturas, in a recently-found inscription, proves the soundness of his remaining conjecture.

In p. 104, justice is done to the sagacity of Mr. Lee for scenting out the

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meaning of "centurias a solo restituerunt," in an inscription, sect. 39 of the *Monumenta Hist. Brit.* He happily divined that the same word might stand for "a century, or company, and its quarters." Thus viewed, the stone in question records the rebuilding of their quarters for the 7th legion. In Cicero, *De leg. Agrar*, ii. 13, are the words, "Præterea mulis, tabernaculis, centuriis, supellectili," etc. For "centuriis," one scholar reads "tentoriis," another "canteriis;" and Long, in the *Bibliothec. Class:* Cicero, says, "There is no meaning in the word." Mr. Lee has found a good meaning, and scholars are in his debt.

Our author's interpretation of the monumental slab from Uriconium has been accepted by the highest authority, Mr. Wright. The concluding lines of each inscription run—

CUR . AG	CUR . AG
RA . TRE	CON . I . A .
	XXX .

The Doctor shows "cur . ag." to stand for "curam agente," not "curator agrorum," as Wright supposed. Taking R to be a mistake for P in one case, and I for J in the other, he gets "curam agente patre," "curam agente conjuge, while "A . XXX ." if retained, means "conjuge annorum triginta."

Seldom has the unravelling of inscriptions been put before the public so clearly and straightforwardly.

Analecta Græca Minora. With Introductory Sentences, English Notes, and a Dictionary. By the Rev. PERCIVAL FROST, M.A. Bell & Daldy. 1863.

HERE is an old friend with a new face. And the experiment of Mr. Frost has been in the main successful, though here and there some old familiar feature is missing, and some bold novelty startles us at first. The introduction and choice of the introductory sentences is a happy idea, obviating as it does the need of a Delectus, a dreary text-book, generally, to which unlucky youths are often condemned, when their powers would be better brought out by simple connected stories. Mr. Frost, too, has done well in introducing passages from the *Anabasis* of Xenophon at the latter end of the prose extracts. These can present no serious difficulty to such as have gone through the preceding portions of the book; nor could better specimens of this author's manner have been chosen than the dramatic story of the treason of Orontes, and the graphic picture of the Battle of Cunaxa. The selections from Greek poetry merit special praise. Some thirty of the plainest fables of Babrius make their first appearance in any Analecta, here. They are such as are not hard to make out, though here and there a rare word, such as χηραμός, "a gap," a word of rare occurrence elsewhere, turns up. For the most part, boys will find in Babrius words often met again in Classic Greek, and this is a decided advantage. The remaining poets laid under contribution are Anacreon, Bion, Moschus, and Tyrtæus, and right glad are we that the Lament of Moschus over Bion still finds a place. Passages of such rare beauty as its closing lines, αἰ αἰ ταὶ μαλάχαι—νήγρετον ὕπνον (p. 153, *ad fin.*), will awaken poetry in any schoolboy who is not hopelessly dull.

Into the Babrian selections we have dipped most carefully, and find the notes just such as a boy ought to be furnished with; and most thoroughly do we agree with the editor's remarks upon "foot-notes in school-books," especially that pertinent one respecting "a master with his eyes about him."

We would suggest to Mr. Frost the consideration, whether, in his third extract from Babrius, the line πλείονος ἔρως γὰρ ἔστερησε τῶν ὄντων is not the moral or epimyth, the aorist having the same force of expressing a usual result, which Mr. Frost correctly states in p. 107, Fab. 8. We submit that he is mistaken in referring it to the master of the hen.

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In extract 6, it seems to us that πρὸ τῆς ὥρης, means "before its proper hour," and not as the editor explains it, "before the present moment." It may be questioned too, whether, in extract 14, καλλίστας ἄμητος means more than "a goodly harvest," πας being quiescent, as we often find the last part of compound epithets of similar form in Æschylus. But the book, as a whole, is a good one, and there can be no doubt that it will take, as it deserves, the place of more elderly Analecta.

C. Julii Cæsaris Commentarii de Bello Gallico. Libri i.-v. *Elucidated by Notes Critical and Explanatory, a Lexicon of all the Words in the Text, and a Series of Easy Reading Lessons for Beginners.* By A. K. Isbister, M.A. London: Longmans. 1863.

The peculiarity of this School-Cæsar is that the text is preceded by 32 pp. of easy reading-lessons intended to serve the purpose of a Delectus; and the peculiarity of these easy reading-lessons is that they are formed from the text of Cæsar itself (Book i. chap. 1-14), by giving the principal clause or clauses of each sentence, first alone, and then with the addition of phrases and subordinate clauses till the very text of Cæsar is re-obtained. This is a happy idea: still, these preliminary lessons want the variety which, in the ordinary Delectus, both relieves the tedium of slow progress, and insures to the beginner a sufficiently miscellaneous vocabulary.

Speaking of the reading-lessons and the vocabulary, the editor promises in his preface to mark the quantity of the first and middle syllables in all cases in which a doubt might arise; but this promise is imperfectly fulfilled. How is a beginner to know the quantity of the first syllable of *ago*, *vado*; or that there is any difference of quantity between the first syllable of *venio*, and that of its perfect *veni*, unless they are marked. The promise of "Notes Critical and Explanatory" is not fulfilled at all. There are, indeed, a few notes to the easy reading-lessons, but none whatever to the text of Cæsar, only various readings accompanied by the names Oudendorp, Herzog, Nipperdey, Elberling, Kraner, and others, as vouchers for the same. Surely it is injudicious to trouble boys in their first Latin reading-book with all this, and with the uncommon spelling *milia* for *millia*; also to call, as in the title-page, a Latin vocabulary by the Greek name Lexicon.

An Elementary Latin Grammar, for the Use of Schools. By Rev. E. Millar, M.A., Late Fellow and Tutor of New College, Oxford. London: Longmans. 1863.

The author of this grammar starts from the idea—unfortunate for himself as well as for those whom he wishes to instruct—that he ought to combine the discoveries of modern philological researches with the traditional and antiquated forms in which Latin Grammar has been taught in England for centuries. Strange as it may appear, he does not see that the two things are as incompatible as astrology is with astronomy. Another misfortune is, that in many instances the author does not seem to understand the laws taught by advanced scholarship. He regards *a* as the characteristic vowel of the first declension, *o* and *u* (?) of the second, *i* and *e* of the third, *u* of the fourth, and *e* of the fifth. What can this mean? In the first, second, fourth, and fifth declensions these vowels are parts of the stem; but are *i* and *e* parts of the stem of all words of the third declension? The term characteristic vowel is thus applied in some instances to a part of the stem, and in others to the termination. The vowel *u*, moreover, is not the characteristic vowel of the second declension; and wherever it appears in it, as in the nominative and accusative singular,

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it is only a substitute for *o*. In a note to the paragraph on the first declension, Mr. Millar says "the oldest ending of the genitive was *as*;" how this came to be changed into *āi* and *ae* might sorely puzzle a boy. The oldest form was *aes* or *ais* (see Corssen), which became *as* by contraction, and *āi* or *ae* by dropping the final *s*. In speaking of the *s* as the sign of the nominative in the third declension, he says that the nominative of *caput* ought to have been *caputs*, forgetting or not knowing that neuters never take an *s* as the sign of the nominative. Mr. Millar seems to claim some merit for his chapter on the pronouns, but we are unable to discover wherein this merit lies. It is true he rightly treats *is*, *ea*, *id* as a personal pronoun of the third person, but immediately afterwards classes it among the demonstratives, to which it does not belong; *alius* and *alter* are likewise called demonstratives! and *nullus*, *neuter*, *nemo*, and *nihil* are styled negative pronouns!

The chapters on the verbs and their different forms also are not free from similar misconceptions and inaccuracies. But the radical defect of the book is the attempt to combine the traditional forms of grammatical rules with the sounder views of modern grammarians. Thus we have in the Syntax the principal rules given in very indifferent Latin, or in such English as was written and spoken in the 17th century. What we think of these and similar things, we have fully expressed in No. x. of *The Museum*, p. 214, *et seq.* The bulk of the book is unnecessarily swelled by the introduction of matter which has nothing to do with grammar, to an extent which is very undesirable in an elementary school-book.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

Companion to Tate's First Principles of Arithmetic; being a Treatise on the Higher Rules and Operations of Arithmetic. By THOMAS TATE. London: Longmans. 1863.

THIS treatise is intended to serve as a stepping-stone from the simpler processes of arithmetic to its higher applications, including algebra. Teachers and students are much indebted to Mr. Tate for his efforts in this and his previous works to smooth the way to the complete acquisition of the principles of the most beautiful and most important of the mathematical sciences—common arithmetic. To a considerable extent, and for a long time, no doubt, the purposes of education will be well served by keeping a boy steadily engaged in the manipulation of figures. But the teacher must not stop here. An intelligent acquisition of the science will unite a knowledge of the reasons with that of the processes. The aim of the work before us is to smooth and enlarge the way to this higher knowledge. In the advertisement to the book is a quotation from Canon Moseley, to the effect that Mr. Tate is the first who has succeeded in making arithmetic the logic of the people. We do not know whether this is strictly true or not, but we are of opinion that Mr. Tate's works are calculated, in the hands of an intelligent teacher, to render arithmetic the logic of the school-boy.

It is not our intention to pass in review all that Mr. Tate has done in the treatise before us; we shall probably do best to select some one section of the work, and to say all that occurs to us on that head. We select the Rule of Three, for many reasons. It is a rule the thorough mastery of which is a valuable acquisition; it is a rule which stands first in order of those which develop the reasoning powers of a school-boy. He may master the processes of addition and subtraction as practical rules, but he is not likely at an early age to understand what he is doing. He has little chance, for instance, of knowing the meaning of that simple (we beg pardon, compound) operation of carrying one after borrowing ten in subtraction. But he can be made to

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understand the argument peculiar to the Rule of Three as soon as he comes to it. This rule is then the teacher's first standing-ground. We have still another reason for selecting the Rule of Three as the subject of our remarks, in connexion with Mr. Tate's book; and that is the fact that it appears on Mr. Tate's table of contents, whilst proportion is excluded. We are not ashamed to confess that this fact gave us great pleasure, and prepared us to take a favourable view of the work. Perhaps our notions are a little antiquated on this subject, and our chuckle of delight may have had no deeper foundation than that which produced the outcry against crinoline on the part of certain old ladies of the short-waist period. Of that the reader will judge when he learns what we have to say.

We begin by quoting the words of Mr. Tate (p. 62):—"Proportion is an elegant mode of expressing the results of arithmetical investigations, and forms an essential feature of many departments of mathematics; but considered as *a rule* of commercial arithmetic, it is neither simple nor expeditious." In subscribing, as we do, to this opinion, we must not be understood to discard proportion, or the idea of proportion, from common arithmetic. It is not the idea of relative magnitude that we would keep in the background, but the idea of *formal* proportion. By a pretty intimate acquaintance with our schools, we have come to the conclusion that the modern habit of looking at rule-of-three questions merely as exercises in formal proportion, has been most injurious. It utterly cramps a boy's reasoning faculties, or rather would do so if time were allowed it. Happily, in modern education, there are correctives. But why should they be needed? Why should not this most beautiful rule be made an instrument for forming rather than for deforming the mind? Mr. Tate proposes for the purpose what he terms *the equational method*. By this method the comparisons are separated from one another, and we cannot doubt that the youngest boy will understand what he is doing. So far we agree with Mr. Tate. But we cannot consent with him to wipe out all trace of formal proportion in dealing with Rule-of-Three questions. This carries us out of one extreme into another. Even if the reasons for so doing were stronger than they are, it is doubtful whether teachers would be induced to agree to such a step. The true middle course, as we think, is to revert to the old Rule of Three of Cocker (if it was Cocker), as employed by our grandfathers, and to add to it such an exposition of relative magnitude as may be deemed requisite. The old rule consisted in contrasting two *statements*, prefacing the contrast by the word *if*. The merit of the method lay in the necessity imposed on the student to bring under the eye two *phrases* such as *cost* and QUANTITY, *gain* and OUTLAY, etc., etc. We will give as an example the following, which Mr. Tate has, in our opinion, solved somewhat badly:—"If 25 per cent. be gained by selling sugar at £2, 10s. per cwt., how much is gained per cent. by selling it at £2, 2s.?" (Ex. 27, p. 78.) Mr. Tate's solution consists of three steps; 1*st*, to obtain the cost price per cwt.; 2*d*, the gain on that price; 3*d*, the gain on £100. Now any one will see that the first step is a retrograde one. Let the price be altered to £2, 9s., and the reader will at once be convinced of this fact. No doubt the student is enabled by this proceeding to see clearly what he is about, but we doubt the propriety of ascending every hill on the journey for the sake of a clear view. The solution by the old Cocker method will soon be as clearly apprehended as this more tortuous method. It would run thus:—If *receipts* of £2, 10s. PRODUCE £125, then *receipts* of £2, 2s. will PRODUCE £105, and the gain per cent. is £5. It will be seen that this method takes its stand above or before formal proportion; it is based on the necessity for the proper collocation of two phrases. The use of such a process undoubtedly teaches a boy to think. He must select his ground before he ventures to tread it. This may sometimes be difficult, but what of that?

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We wish Mr. Tate had *added* this to his methods. We do not, however, on that account withhold our word of commendation from the book. It is calculated to do good service, and teachers will do well to avail themselves of it.

Algebra for Beginners. By I. TODHUNTER, M.A., F.R.S. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co. 1863.

THE reputation of Mr. Todhunter is too firmly established by his previous works to need our smile or to fear our frown. And the present work will do it no injury. For multiplicity, variety, and arrangement of examples, it is all that can be desired. Were we disposed to find fault, we would say that it is a mistake to purchase simplicity at the expense of logical fulness. This mistake Mr. Todhunter is certainly guilty of. From fear (apparently) that a boy may be puzzled with a full argument, he prefers to present him with an outline to be filled in at some future stage of his progress. For instance, having defined fractions as *magnitudes* (Art. 130), when he comes to use them as multipliers (Art. 144) he offers a demonstration, the correctness of which depends on certain properties of multipliers which are taken for granted. The student is thus disposed to look on the whole as a mere shuffle of symbols. Perhaps, however, this sacrifice to simplicity is a sacrifice in the right direction; and we doubt not that Mr. Todhunter's book will be most extensively employed. It is well got up by the printers.

III. MISCELLANEOUS.

The History of Rome. By THEODORE MOMMSEN. Translated by the Rev. WILLIAM P. DICKSON, Regius Professor of Biblical Criticism in the University of Glasgow. Vol. III. London: Bentley. 1863.

THE general character of this important work has already been discussed in our notice of Professor Dickson's translation of the first two volumes;* and we have now great pleasure in introducing to our readers the third volume, which contains the history of Rome from the battle of Pydna, in B.C. 168, to the death of Sulla in B.C. 78, and accordingly comprises a period of ninety years, full of the deepest interest to the student of history. The volume concludes with three chapters on the Commonwealth and its Economy, on Nationality, Religion and Education, and on Literature and Art among the Romans. The author here has to treat of a period of Roman history about which, besides many others, he has contemporary writers as his authorities, so that there seems to be little scope for speculation and hypothesis. But, notwithstanding this, many of the most prominent historical characters and political transactions are set before us in an entirely new light, though, we are afraid, not always in their true light; for the author not unfrequently writes in the spirit of a passionate partisan, and overlooks or ignores portions of his authorities which do not suit his views. His animated and fascinating style is apt to carry away his readers, and the young student ought to be particularly cautious in accepting Mommsen's verdict. Tib. Sempronius Graochus, for example, according to him, is "a tolerably able, thoroughly well-meaning, conservative patriot, who simply did not know what he was doing; who, in the fullest belief that he was calling the people, evoked the rabble, and grasped at the crown without being himself aware of it, till the inexorable concatenation of events urged him irresistibly into the career of the demagogue-tyrant;" and C. Sempronius Gracchus is an impassionate and revolutionary demagogue, aiming at the tyrannies which, according to Mommsen, is the end and aim of all the leading men from the Gracchi to Julius Cæsar, the republican spirit being entirely

* *The Museum*, vol. ii. p. 227.

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defunct. For the unfortunate Greeks who were goaded to madness by their Roman oppressors, our author has not a single kind word to say. As is generally the case with impassionate writers, he not unfrequently contradicts his own statements in different parts of the work. But, notwithstanding these and some other drawbacks, which cannot mislead a well-read scholar, the history of Rome in the hands of Mommsen has become something quite new and fresh, breathing a new spirit, and appearing in a new garb. It is truly astonishing to see how everywhere he brings to light new sources of information from inscriptions, from philological research, and even from passages of well-known authors, which had hitherto been disregarded or overlooked. Our space does not permit us to enter more fully into the extraordinary merits and demerits of this great work, but those who wish to see the whole subject fairly and impartially discussed in all its details, may be referred to a volume just published at Halle by Carl Peter, entitled, *Studien zur Römischen Geschichte, ein Beitrag zur Kritik von Th. Mommsen's Römischer Geschichte.* Professor Dickson has executed his task of translation with great accuracy and fidelity; it is an improvement, in point of style, upon the preceding volumes, but there still are a few passages in which he has adhered too closely to the German idiom, which occasionally makes the reader feel that he has a translation before him.

Shakspere-Characters: chiefly those subordinate. By CHARLES COWDEN CLARKE, Author of the *Riches of Chaucer*, etc. London: Smith, Elder, and Co. 1863.

ALL lovers of Shakspere have to thank Mr. Clarke for another book on a subject which is never stale. The inexhaustibleness of our Shakspere is evidenced by nothing more than the continued comments which are called for upon his writings, and the fresh discoveries in them which are every year being made of new beauties and of richer truths; discoveries made, some of them, by laborious "digging" for the gold beneath, and some of them, like the silver mines of Potosi, by the accidental circumstances of the reader.

Mr. Clarke's love and patient study of Shakspeare have long been known through the lectures, which he delivered in various places, on the "subordinate characters" drawn by the great dramatist. The book now before us is a publication of these lectures in a form more suited to perusal, shortly glancing at the more prominent characters, in order to give completeness and unity to the whole. The object he has chiefly in view is, to "direct attention to the ethical scope and design of the several dramas, and to the sustained harmony with which the poet has delineated his characters throughout." There can, we think, be no question that this object is a most worthy one, and that, as regards the subordinate characters of the dramas, it occupies ground which has hitherto been too much overlooked. Mr. Clarke has executed his task with a faithfulness and success which must commend him to all who delight in our greatest English author.

There is nothing in which he has been more successful than in pointing out the distinctions between characters which are like each other. This is a field indeed peculiarly rich, and likely to reward the labour of those who cultivate it still further. Mr. Clarke has drawn a most interesting parallel between the ambition of Macbeth, Lady Macbeth, and Richard III., showing how the first is dependent on circumstances both for exciting and sustaining his ambition; while Lady Macbeth is self-sustained, and has power even to become her husband's tempter, bearing up his ambition as well as her own, but doing this from the mere keenness and force of her desire for the crown;

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while Richard, a far darker type of the ambitious man, scorns all who are opposed to him, and tramples on them without feeling, as mere obstacles in his way. All three, again, are plainly distinguishable from Iago, whose proud ambition is overtopped, and all but hidden, by terrible revenge and fiendish enjoyment of evil. In the same way we find the contrasted characters of Shakspere everywhere rich in nice distinctions in human nature. We find the delineation of madness, both feigned and real, in Hamlet and Ophelia set over against Edgar and Lear; we find aërial beings contrasted in Puck, Ariel, and Caliban; we find female purity in Imogen, Viola, Juliet, Miranda, Desdemona, and in almost all the more prominent women of Shakspere; we find Roman valour contrasted in Brutus and Coriolanus; British valour in Hotspur and Prince Henry; while wit and humour find their very ideals in Benedict and Beatrice for the one, and Falstaff for the other. In fact the page of Shakspere is—and Mr. Clarke has done good service in showing that it is—one of the richest psychological treats,—the dissection of human character and motive on so large a scale being perhaps nowhere equalled.

Mr. Clarke is also to be thanked for drawing attention, in many minor things, to the great knowledge and generally wonderful accuracy of Shakspere. The late Lord Campbell's last literary effort was to prove that Shakspere must have been a lawyer's clerk; we have known a university medical prize offered for the best dissertation on the "Test of Madness" in Hamlet; the prescription in "Lear" for Gloster's eyes has been declared the best that the faculty could have offered; and while men have been disputing whether Shakspere knew Latin, he has given us, in his Roman plays, perhaps the very finest delineations of the old Roman character that we have.

We may also point out, as instances of Mr. Clarke's successful treatment of his subject, his proof (which seems to us unanswerable), that the madness of Hamlet was only feigned; his portraiture of the conceit of Bottom; and his elaborate delineation of the charming character of Maria in "Twelfth Night."

It would be too much to say that there is no exception to be taken to this book. We are struck, for instance, at its incompleteness, omitting as it does no fewer than sixteen of Shakspere's plays, which we discover only when we look for some of our favourites; some of these being Cymbeline (with perhaps the finest female character in Shakspere), Romeo and Juliet (the most elaborate picture of youthful love the poet has given us), Henry VIII. (the nearest approach to a history of his own time, with his reading of contemporary character), and Timon, which seems to us a unique thing in Shakspere, like nothing else there, but unquestionably his, as we find it now.

Then, with all submission, we must demur to Mr. Clarke's reading of King Lear, which we have always ranked as Shakspere's highest and most tragic effort. He is surely wrong in holding that "self-will" is the great principle which that tragedy was meant to set forth; and doubly wrong, surely, in making that the prominent feature in Cordelia's character. Lear may be self-willed, but the "foolish fondness" of age, to which he confesses, is far more characteristic of him; ingratitude surely stands above self-will both in Goneril and Regan; and Cordelia is the picture of a sensitive, shrinking nature, the very tenderness of whose love renders it impossible that she should make it part of a courtly pageant, or the price of a rich estate.

Nor can we easily pardon Mr. Clarke for giving up without a struggle the unity of the "Midsummer Night's Dream," as if it were not the reproduction (with far rarer skill than the Opium-Eater's) of the shifting and weird-like scenery of dreamland, which, in all its variety and unexpected changes, has yet a hidden unity of its own. But we take exception only to a few incidental defects in a volume, which has done much to illustrate our greatest

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poet, which entitles Mr. Clarke to the gratitude of all who love and study these dramas, and which establishes his claim to be long remembered as one of the most reverential commentators on Shakspere.

Dreamthorp, A Book of Essays, written in the Country. By ALEXANDER SMITH. Strahan. 1863.

IF, as Mr. Smith says, "the Essayist is a kind of poet in prose," it is the most natural thing for a poet, when he takes to prose, to write essays. As literary forms, the poem and the essay are cognate in respect of the kind of thought which is the staple of each, the prominence which the individual mind assumes in each, and the freedom which each affords from restraint and rule, and from the trammels of a definite purpose. This relationship is well illustrated in Mr. Smith's case. It is but little to say that his prose is constantly reminding us of his poetry. The mind is the same, the heart is the same, the thought is the same, the sympathies are the same; and seeing that Mr. Smith has chosen precisely that form of prose into which a poet's thoughts and moods can be best translated, it is nought but natural, that the whole results should be mutually suggestive. Indeed, the introductory essay in this elegant and delightful volume is a prose-poem, and besides being very beautiful and gentle in itself, it serves the artistic purpose of giving unity to the book, by affording a setting for its gems. It describes by a series of delicate and quaint touches the village of "Dreamthorp," to which the contemplative old gentleman under whose guise the author faintly conceals himself, has retired to play with his own thoughts, and "ripen for the grave." Everything in the village is "quiet, moss-grown, orderly." It is far inland. Its roads lose themselves in the smooth, green, undulating country. The canal is the only thing that connects it with the world beyond. "Dreamthorp—a castle, a chapel, a lake, a straggling strip of grey houses, with a blue film of smoke over all,—lies embosomed in emerald." The scenes and the life of Dreamthorp are described in a series of exquisite pictures, of which we quote the following as a specimen :—

"In summer I spend a good deal of time floating about the lake. The landing-place to which my boat is tethered is ruinous, like the chapel and palace, and my embarkation causes quite a stir in the sleepy little village. Small boys leave their games and mud-pies, and gather round in silence; they have seen me get off a hundred times, but their interest in the matter seems always new. Not unfrequently an idle cobbler, in red nightcap and leathern apron, leans on a broken stile, and honours my proceedings with his attention. I shoot off, and the human knot dissolves. The lake contains three islands, each with a solitary tree, and on these islands the swans breed. I feed the birds daily with bits of bread. See, one comes gliding towards me, with superbly arched neck, to receive its customary alms! How wildly beautiful its motions! How haughtily it begs! The green pasture lands run down to the edge of the water, and into it in the afternoons the red kine wade, and stand knee-deep in their shadows, surrounded by troops of flies. Patiently the honest creatures abide the attacks of their tormentors. Now one swishes itself with its tail, now its neighbour flaps a huge ear. I draw my oars alongside, and let my boat float at its own will. The soft blue heavenly abysses, the wandering streams of vapour, the long beaches of rippled cloud, are glassed and repeated in the lake. Dreamthorp is silent as a picture, the voices of the children are mute, and the smoke from the houses, the blue pillars all sloping in one angle, float upwards as if in sleep. Grave and stern the old castle rises, from its emerald banks, which long ago came down to the lake in terrace on terrace, gay with fruits and flowers, and with stone nymph and satyrs hid in every nook. Silent and empty enough to-day! A flock of daws suddenly burst out from a turret, and round and round they wheel, as if in panic. Has some great scandal exploded? Has a conspiracy been discovered? Has a revolution broken out? The excitement has subsided, and one of them, perched on the old banner staff, chatters confidentially to himself, as he, sideways, eyes the world beneath him. Floating about thus, time passes swiftly, for, before

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I know where I am, the kine have withdrawn from the lake to couch on the herbage, while one on a little height is lowing for the milkmaid and her pails. Along the road I see the labourers coming home for supper, while the sun setting behind me makes the village windows blaze; and so I take out my oars, and pull leisurely through waters faintly flushed with evening colours."

The resemblance between Mr. Smith's poems and his essays is very striking in the mode of procedure. In both forms, it is a synthetic or cumulative process. In the one case, to use his own figure, it is stringing pearls, in the other, it is piling more homely pebbles; but in both he walks with a strong hold of nature. In his essays, he does not carry you so rapidly from thought to thought, as from phase to phase of the same thought. When he takes up an idea he holds it long; he plays with it, he presents it in one light after another, and strings together in terse and picturesque language, all the fancies into which it breaks. Thus, in describing the Essayist's function, he elaborates the thought that the essay should be pure literature just as the poem should be pure literature, by an almost endless series of illustrations. The Essayist is not a builder, but he is a skylark; then he is a flower, next he is a knight, then he is Hamlet playing with death; then he is a mineralogist picking up a pebble; then an old man hanging "the mantle of his thought on a nail in a cottage door;" then he is Jacques lying on the idle grassy bank; then he is a preacher, whose discourses "are not beholden to their titles;" then he is a silk-worm, with the mulberry-plant for his world; and lastly, he is set a-browsing, with "the world's six thousand years to depasture his gay or serious humour upon." The whole passage is very characteristic and very fine; but the charm lies rather in its multiplied minuteness than in its breadth of view or strength of grasp. This remark may be generalized, and applied to Mr. Smith's whole style. He is a pre-Raphaelite painter in words, rather than a broad and vigorous landscapeist. The quality is realism aided by a keen and vivid fancy, rather than idealism working out of a strong imagination.

It is quite in keeping with this, that his prose style should give rise to so many striking and epigrammatic sayings, just as his poems are so rich in word-pictures. In both cases, however, the isolated sentences are more memorable than the sum of thought. We can cull these pointed lines, some of them far-fetched enough, as readily from his essays as from his poems: thus,—

"I would rather be Charles Lamb than Charles XII."

"To have to die is a distinction of which no man is proud."

"Love and friendship are the discoveries of ourselves in others, and our delight in the recognition."

"Every man's road in life is marked by the graves of his personal likings."

"A man receives the shocks of life on the buffer of his vanity."

"Reading Milton is like dining off gold-plate in a company of kings;" etc.

Mr. Smith, however, should be aware that this aptitude to "dazzle by sentences," to render sentences "memorable on account of some single irradiating word," is a great snare, tending as it does to produce elaborated and refined diction, but very attenuated thought.

We observe in Mr. Smith's Essays the same tendency to repeat himself which was noticeable in his poems. When a man or a thought gets possession of his mind, it seems, without his knowing it, to be always coming to the surface, and nearly always in the same dress. In the "Life Drama" it was Antony; in "Edwin of Deira," it was "a plump of spears"—on which, by the way, we find the moon dancing, at page 194 of this volume,—and in the Essays, Alexander the Great and Charles I. seem to be the favourites. The former is introduced at least four times; the first time he is merely "at

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the head of his legions;" the other three times he is backed by "the shoutings of his armies." In like manner King Charles appears three times, and always on the scaffold "that winter morning" at Whitehall.

From all that we have said, we wish our readers to gather that the book is a very pleasant book, and conveys an admirable impression of Mr. Smith's powers. Our favourite Essays besides "Dreamthorp" proper, are those "On the Writing of Essays," on "A Lark's Flight," on "Chaucer" and "Dunbar," on "Men of Letters," and on "Books and Gardens." All indicate a genuine love of nature coupled with strong human sympathy, as well as lively fancy and exquisite taste. As the Essays were "written in the country," so there could not be a better place than the country for the appreciative reading of them.

A Manual of Method and Organization. By. R. ROBINSON, Inspector of National Schools, Ireland. London: Longmans. 1863.

So much has been written on the subject of Method, that it would be unfair to judge of this manual by the novelty of its contents. The nine chapters of which it consists present the familiar headings of reading, lesson-books, spelling, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, home-lessons, general hints. The author states the feature of the treatise to be its practical character; which he explains to mean the absence of any discussion of the principles of education, and the minute exhibition of all the steps which ought to be taken by the teacher in giving a lesson. For our part we should be disposed to attach a somewhat different sense to the word "practical." It is a popular error, as we take it, which claims the term for a mere series of details; a judicious exhibition of principles, which would enable the teacher to judge of these details, if not to supply them in large measure for himself, would have a better claim to that designation. To say that the great body of elementary teachers could not appreciate such an exhibition is quite unwarrantable, whatever may be said by Inspectors who have never put their hand to the actual work of teaching. Assuming a proper comprehension of the subject, and a fair degree of expository power, on the part of the writer, it would not only be intelligible and useful, but interesting.

We may at once state our opinion of this volume to be, that it contains a good deal of valuable matter, but that it is neither well proportioned nor well arranged. With a superabundance of detail in certain directions, there is a want of completeness, and even a deficiency, in others. Thus, while the chapter on reading offers a good *résumé* of what has been advanced on the method of conducting reading lessons, nothing is said on teaching the *elements* of reading; and the bearing of certain moral qualities on the teacher's success is overlooked. The chapter on spelling is mainly devoted to spelling from dictation, which it strongly and justly recommends, and for the effectual use of which it gives instructions at great length; but of the connexion between spelling and the various oral lessons given in school, on which the progress of the younger children so much depends, there is absolutely no notice. In the chapter on writing, nothing can be sounder than the author's directions so far as they go; but he appears to us to limit his attention too much to such as are of a mechanical nature. Imitation is certainly of prime importance in learning to write: but imitation may either lead or mislead. There must be careful instruction, and carefully superintended practice (much more than what the author insists on or admits) to insure success.

The chapters on grammar, geography, and arithmetic will repay a careful perusal, and we are glad to see special attention directed to the sub-

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ject of home lessons. The concluding chapter seems to us to be too much condensed for the very important topics with which it deals, particularly that part of it which treats of moral discipline. Some of the details of method might have been advantageously omitted, so as to admit of a fuller treatment of this part of the teacher's art.

On the whole, we can commend the volume to the notice of teachers as one which, on the subject of method particularly, they may read with much advantage.

English Composition, Argumentative and General, Reports, Letters, Abstracts, and Mental Philosophy, in a Graduated Series of Practical Lessons and Exercises. By RICHARD HILEY. Longmans. 1863.

THE first fault of this book, as might be inferred from so much of the title as we have quoted, appears to be that it contains too much; the second, which the title also betrays, that that "too much" is badly arranged. It is divided into six books, the first of which properly enough treats of words and sentences; but the school-boy who has traversed for a score of lessons this familiar ground (rendered less so, however, by the introduction of such hard terms as *homonymous, paronymous, preceptive, aphoristic*, etc.), is immediately hurled into the mysteries of "Mental Philosophy," thence into "Practical Logic," and thereafter into a discussion of the "Sources of Argument," which are exactly seventeen, beginning with "definition," and ending with "poetic maxims." The fifth book comprises what are called "Applicatory Exercises;" and the sixth contains "Subjects Classified," with a fine scorn of logical division, under such heads as these: Narrative, Descriptive, Didactic, Oratorical, Literary, Sentimental, Suasory, Pathetic, Letters, Reports, Abstracts; to which is added a chapter of "Concluding Hints," on such points as Wit and Humour, Beauty and Sublimity, and Taste.

Into each of these books, and especially into the second, third, and fourth, a great mass of material is pretentiously thrown, without regard either to utility, to harmony, or to good taste. In the chapters on Mental Philosophy, there is no attempt at systematic treatment; we have simply a succession of isolated definitions. It is less an outline of the subject, which might have been useful, than a condensation of some more elaborate treatise, which is only perplexing. But the ambitious language of the lessons is almost rendered ridiculous by the trivial character of the exercises thereupon. Thus, after disposing of the subtle question of *Perception and Sensation* in two pages, the pupil is asked to take, as the subject of an "applicatory" exercise, "A ripe apple," with the instructions: "1. Describe your *perceptions* of a ripe apple.—*a.* As to its *form*,—*b*, its *size*,—*c*, its *colour*. 2. Describe your *sensations* from—*a.* the *touch*,—*b*, from the *smell*,—*c*, from the *taste*."

The "Exercises on Memory" are even more amusing. For example:—

"EXERCISE—VIOLATIONS OF VIRTUOUS CONDUCT.—1. State candidly and fully your *violations* of the following *virtues*:—2. Under what *circumstances* these violations were committed; 3. The *feelings*, if any, excited by their violation. Let the list comprise your actions for a *week*: *violations* of 1. Truth, 2. Temperance, 3. Order, 4. Resolution, 5. Frugality, 6. Industry!"

In all this Mr. Hiley seems to us to mistake entirely the end of teaching composition. The great aim of the teacher ought surely to be, to cultivate a correct, lucid, and elegant mode of expressing thought in language. We make no objection to mental science (in an elementary form) as a branch of study in schools; but we are far from thinking that it is either necessary or

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desirable that English composition should be burdened with a half-learned philosophical jargon.

Mr. Hiley's own style is not always correct. He proposes to "*devote* a few lessons *in* elucidating" a subject. He constantly uses the word "adduce" in peculiar connexions; he says, "*adduce* an example *to* all" the terminations; "*from* the following Greek primitives, *adduce* English derivatives;" "*adduce* correlatives *to* the following," etc. At page 20, we find this sentence: "Conciseness of expression is very appropriate to the preceptive, aphoristic, and proverbial kinds of writing; but is not *suitable to* the descriptive, the pathetic, and the declamatory. Conciseness is also better *adapted to* writing than *to* speaking." And in the last sentence of his preface he says, speaking of two classes of readers, "For both then, *regard has been had to supply* in a clear, systematic form such information," etc. But many of Mr. Hiley's precepts are better than his example.

The Student's Chronological Maps. By D. Beale. No. I. *England.* Bell and Daldy. 1863.

If we are not inclined to speak very favourably of this publication, it is rather because of our objection to the principle of such works, than because we have any particular fault to find with this one. It is an adaptation of the *Méthode Mnemonique Polonaise*; and the author defends it on the ground that it is simple and objective, philosophical and expansive. The whole chart is divided into twenty large squares, representing centuries, and each of these is divided into one hundred small squares, representing individual years. Each century is further divided by thicker cross lines into four parts, "to help the eye;" but this arrangement might have been further utilized, had these squares been so numbered as to make them represent quarters of centuries. The author has made the first year in her chart the zero year; on the ground that, as we say a child is in his first year when he is 0 years old, so we should say of a century that it is 0 years old in its first year. This proceeds upon the fallacy that dates are ordinal numbers. They are ordinal in form, but they are cardinal in reality. When we say the year 1, we really mean the first year. We certainly never speak of an event as having happened in the year 0, though Miss Beale has a square for that year in her chart. Even if this system were theoretically correct, it would be practically inconvenient and perplexing. Thus the student has to place the Roman invasion of Britain A.D. 43, in the 44th square of the first century. Both in the divisions, and in the sub-divisions, we are convinced that the student would find it much simpler to look upon a square as embracing the years 1 to 100, than to take it as representing from 0 to 99.

Opposite the chart, there is a corresponding letterpress table of the chief dates and events in each century; corresponding with which, black dots are inserted in the chart.

Chronological and Genealogical Tables Illustrative of English History. By John Charles Curtis, B.A., Vice-Principal and Lecturer on History, Training College, Borough Road, London. Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1863.

These are the most sensible and useful historical tables we are acquainted with. They are based upon no special mnemonic system, and afford the memory no other aid than that which it can obtain from having facts and dates systematically arranged, and suggestively classified. The first fifteen tables consist of lists of the chief battles and sieges in British history, from

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the Roman period to the Indian Mutiny, giving the date, the commanders on both sides, and the result, after the name of each. Then follows a useful table of important treaties, with the dates, the names of the contracting powers, and the principal terms. These tables occupy two-thirds of the book. The remaining portion is devoted to genealogical tables of the Royal houses of England, Scotland, and France. The book also affords excellent models, according to which pupils, in reading history, might be required to construct tables for themselves.

The Poetical Reader, for School and Home Use. Edited by JOHN CHARLES CURTIS. Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1863.

MR. CURTIS has made an admirable selection of pieces in compiling this useful little book. It contains a smaller number of poems than usual from the old masters, but a larger number than usual from modern poets,—Tennyson, Trench, Kingsley, Matthew Arnold, Keats, Wordsworth, etc.; and all are selected with special reference to the taste and capacity, not of children, but of young people who have passed that stage.

The Grade Lesson-Books, in Six Standards, especially adapted to meet the requirements of the "Revised Code." By E. J. STEVENS, and CHARLES HOLE. First, Second, Third, and Fourth Standards. Longmans. 1863.

THIS is another addition to the already numerous series of reading books which the Revised Code has called into existence. It has been suggested to us by these "grade" books, that a practical question of some importance will ere long call for settlement. What, for example, is "narrative in monosyllables," under Standard I.? Is the Inspector to examine the children in that Standard on any book the teacher may put into his pupils' hands? He may take a book like Standard I. of this series, in which there is an attempt at consecutive writing in short words, but so easy and so trivial in subject, that it would be strange if the children did not all pass. On the other hand, he may have adopted a better book, a more interesting selection of pieces, but a more difficult book, and run the risk of having not a few of his children "cast." "Narrative in monosyllables" obviously allows a wide latitude. Who is to fix its precise acceptation: the teacher, the Inspector, or my Lords? And are attainments in the lowest interpretation of it to go for as much as attainments in the highest?

The editors of this series have pitched their standard very low. They have overlooked one of the "requirements of the Code," by making Standard I. really a primer, making no allowance for article 40, b. 2. They have mixed up writing and arithmetic with reading and spelling, which, as we have before had occasion to remark, seems to us a very objectionable arrangement. There is, on the whole, very little in these books that will bear a second perusal, little that is substantial or memorable, little that will tend to cultivate the intelligence of children.

Civil Service Examinations: Solutions of Questions on Arithmetic and Book-keeping used in the Civil Service Examinations: 1862. *With a Supplement, containing Examples in Account States.* By the Rev. JOHN HUNTER, M.A. Longmans. 1863.

The title of this book gives a sufficient account of its contents. We believe it is customary for students preparing for the Civil Service Examinations to "cram" up the questions given in previous Reports, and so to get into the examiners' methods, with the chance of finding an old question repeated.

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We do not wish to convey any approval of this plan, when we say that such students will find the above book a very useful help.

A Second Defence of the Queen's English. By G. WASHINGTON MOON, F.R.S.L. In Reply to "A Plea for the Queen's English," No. II., by the Dean of Canterbury. Hatchard & Co. 1863.

WE could not but applaud the spirited nature of Mr. Moon's first reply to Dean Alford, and we were prepared to accept some, though by no means all, of his conclusions. But the silly and sometimes positively offensive tone which he has assumed in his second "Defence" must alienate the warmest of his sympathizers. Though in ordinary circumstances his exposure of the Dean's misquotation of Scripture might have called for explanation, we cannot blame the Dean for declining further battle with "a foeman" so little "worthy of his steel."

Practical Hints on the Preparation of Schools for Examination under the Revised Code, with Special Reference to Schools kept by Mistresses. Second Edition. Simpkin, Marshall, & Co. 1863.

IF we understand aright the origin of this useful and timeous pamphlet, it had for its foundation the remarks made by one of H. M. Inspectors on the occasion of a visit to the Training School, Salisbury. Of these remarks, Mr. E. C. Collard, the chaplain of the College, was afterwards requested to prepare an outline, which forms the chief portion of these pages. To this he has added a number of relative notes, which teachers will find not the least valuable part of the pamphlet. The "Hints" discuss in a thoroughly practical and intelligible way the working of the Code, the best means of meeting its requirements, and the main causes of failure in its essential subjects.

WE have to thank Colonel Sir Henry James for copies of his *Catalogues* of Maps and Plans and other publications of the Ordnance Survey of England and Wales, of Scotland, and of Ireland.

We have also received a lecture, on *The Study of Geography*, by William Hughes, F.R.G.S., a reprint of that delivered before the College of Preceptors in February.

Mr. J. B. Marsh has prepared an elegant little volume of *Prayers for the Sick and Sorrowful*, in supplement of his *Book of Bible Prayers* noticed in last Number. As the prayers in the new volume are "framed out of the Psalms," the chief fault we found with the previous volume is obviated. The two books form together an admirable companion for the thoughtful Christian.

M. Albitès' comprehensive work, entitled *How to speak French, or French and France: Facts, Reasons, Practice; a condensed, simplified, and progressive Cyclopedia of the French Language, and of the History, Literature, and State of France*, etc. etc. (Longmans), has reached a seventh edition.

Mr. Douglas's *Progressive English Readers*—First, Second, Third, and Fourth Books (A. & C. Black)—have reached us too late for special notice. Their *progressive* character is carried out with great skill and intelligence. The division of words into syllables is perhaps carried too far. The books are well got up; the type is clear and bold; and some of the numerous illustrations are good, though generally these are of unequal merit.

Mr. Gordon has added *Gulliver's Travels*, in one volume, and the two parts separately, to his *School and Home Series*.

We shall refer to the Otago *Education Ordinance*, and *Report* in our next Number.

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XI. CORRESPONDENCE AND NOTES AND QUERIES.

I.—SIR GEORGE CORNEWALL LEWIS AND THE FABLES OF BABRIUS.

SIR,—The author of the article, "Sir George Cornewall Lewis: In Memoriam," in your Number for July, has adverted to the controversy about the second part of the Fables of Babrius,* in terms which may perhaps be held to justify a few words of reply.

It may be true, as he says, that the doubters have made little of their case; but it is also true that, so far as I know, no answer—no detailed answer at any rate—has been attempted to them.

My attention was drawn to the subject in the latter part of 1860, when I undertook to review Sir George Lewis's edition of the second part. At the time, I knew nothing of the opinion of the critical world on the matter,—Sir George Lewis, who kindly lent me various works on Babrius, and entered into correspondence with me on the subject, merely informing me, in words resembling those quoted in J. D.'s article, that there had been some talk on the Continent of questioning the genuineness of the fables, but that the intention had, he believed, been abandoned. On examining the fables, I was led to suspect them, on account of their extraordinary coincidences with Lachmann's conjectures; and the suspicion thus originated was found to be supported by so many other circumstances, that it gradually ripened into certainty. I communicated my opinions, in their various stages, to Sir George Lewis, and found, as your contributor has said, that he did not share my doubts: but he did not seriously attempt to remove them. His final view, so far as I am aware, communicated in a letter in the winter of 1861, acknowledging the receipt of my paper in the *Rheinische Museum*, was that the fables were substantially genuine (*i.e.*, the work of Babrius re-written by a later barbarizing hand), but that they might possibly have been "cooked" by Menas, or some one else who knew Lachmann's conjectures. Meantime, after writing my papers, I found that such continental scholars as had examined the subject had apparently decided against the fables, so that I seemed to have been arguing elaborately against pretensions which had been already rejected. I may instance Professors Cobet and Dindorf as having thus anticipated me.

It was no surprise to me that Sir George Lewis did not enter fully into the question. With the business of the War-Office on his hands, the wonder was rather that he could give even a moment's attention to it. What he would have thought had he had leisure to discuss the objections submitted to him, it is not for me to say. I merely wish to draw attention to the fact that, not having the leisure, he did not discuss them.

I should be ungrateful were I to dismiss the subject without saying how cordially I concur in the spirit of your contributor's paper. My acquaintance with Sir G. Lewis was mainly a literary one, but his personal kindness and courtesy were unfailing; and it is not easy to exaggerate what scholarship has suffered from the loss of a statesman who was himself a working scholar.—Your obedient servant,

JOHN CONINGTON.

SIR,—I thank you for sending me Professor Conington's letter touching my remarks on the controversy about the second part of Babrius, which appeared in the "In Memoriam" notice of Sir G. C. Lewis, in your July

* *Ante*, p. 134.

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Number. I avail myself of your permission to reply, rather for the purpose of expressing my sense of the courtesy, candour, and friendly tone of the Professor's letter, than for the sake of entering on the defence of the genuineness of the MSS. in question. The fitting champion is removed from the field; and were I, without longer preparation than I have been able to give to the matter, to enter the lists against Mr. Conington, I might incur a defeat, that would find expression in the words—

"Infelix puer, atque impar congressus Achilli."

However, a re-perusal of my article satisfies me that I have simply stated Sir G. C. Lewis's views, although the tone is that of one who entirely concurs with those views. My belief is, that Sir G. C. Lewis, despite his other occupations, did find time to give the Professor's objections sufficient consideration to enable him to form an opinion upon them, and that the result was not conversion to the theory of "forgery." In November 1861 he wrote thus to me:—

"Mr. Conington has lately sent me a Latin Dissertation, published in a German periodical, intended to show that the second part of Babrius is a recent forgery. I confess that he does not convince me; but Menas was probably a rogue, and there may have been some cooking in his manuscript."

And in May or June 1862, he expressed the same opinion more fully to me at the War-Office.

My own views on this subject are of comparatively little moment; yet I cannot help suggesting that a MS. which stood the inspection of a critic so severe, and so predisposed to doubt all that was unsupported by solid evidence of one kind or another, has at least a claim to the consideration of lesser men. Some might even deem the opinion of Sir G. C. Lewis a set-off against the judgments of Professors Cobet and Dindorf combinedly.

And before the pretensions to genuineness of the second part of Babrius can be said to merit final rejection, I would venture to submit that the "doubters" must (*inter alia*) dispose of that thorn in their sides—the fable entitled in the English version, "Lies a Truth," and numbered xxxi. in Sir G. Lewis's edition. That fable has no counterpart or parallel in the prose versions; it is of considerable merit; it has the Babrian flavour; and, as yet, researches into the fable literature of other nations and languages have failed to produce anything resembling it, which might have given to a forger the groundwork of it.

Again expressing my sense of the candour and courtesy of Mr. Conington's letter,—I am, Sir, yours faithfully, J. D.

II. THE METRIC SYSTEM.

SIR,—In the Parliamentary Reports of the 13th of May, there might be read the following announcement:—"Mr. Ewart obtained leave to bring in a Bill for decimalizing our existing system of weights and measures, and for establishing an accordance between them and those of foreign countries."

As this brief record of the progress of an important social movement might catch the eye of comparatively few, and to fewer still convey any accurate idea of the change proposed, I beg to offer to your readers a little information on this subject, especially because it is only by the co-operation of the educated classes, and above all of educators themselves, that the public mind can be thoroughly informed, and rendered ripe for the desired improvement.]

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The Bill, in brief, proposes the introduction of the metric system of France, which is finding its way into so many other civilized countries, more or less connected with her by commercial ties, and whose rulers are seeing the advantage not only of adopting a simple system of calculation, but of putting themselves in accord with a notation which is gradually becoming entitled to the name of universal. For any one rightly to estimate the gain to us on the score of simplicity, he should look into the Parliamentary Blue Book which was issued last year, as the result of an inquiry by a select committee on this subject, under the presidency of Mr. Ewart, and he will then learn how endless is the variety of weights and measures in use in different parts of the country, and how even a bushel of wheat will at six different places mean as many different weights. In some of the weekly periodicals, as the *Leisure Hour*, *Chambers's Journal*, and *All the Year Round*, articles have recently appeared, giving a full and striking description both of the anomalies at present existing, and the merits of the new or metric system. In the first-named periodical, a second article has appeared in reply to the former paper, deprecating its general adoption. I will therefore very briefly indicate the points of Mr. Ewart's Bill, and its intended operation. The French system comprehends money, weights, and measures, both linear, superficial and solid, as well as liquid. But it is not proposed in the present Bill to make any alteration in our coinage or keeping of accounts. The provisions of it are as follows :—

The adoption (1.) of the *Metre*, as the unit of the measure of length, to be called the New Yard, and equivalent to 39.37079 English inches : (2.) Of the *Hectare*, as the unit of the measure of surface, to be called the New Acre, being the square of 100 new yards, and equivalent to nearly 2½ English acres : (3.) Of the *Litre*, as the unit of the measure of capacity, to be called the New Quart, being the cube of a tenth of the new yard, and equivalent to rather more than 1¾ English pints : (4.) Of the *Kilogram*, as the unit of weight, the half of which shall be the New Pound, consisting of between 13 and 14 oz. avoirdupois.

I have not given the exact equivalents in English measures, except in the case of the metre ; the others are not given in the Bill, with the exception of the new lb., the stated value of which, however, does not tally with the table in the report issued by the committee named above, but doubtless this will be soon rectified, as the discrepancy has been pointed out.

I will not trespass upon your space by entering into a full discussion of the merit and demerits of the system. I only wish to bring the matter under the eye of your readers ; and I may add that Mr. Ewart's Bill proposes, that after three years its adoption should be compulsory, but that, previous to that time, it be only legalized and made permissive.

Though I am an advocate of the system, yet I am decidedly of opinion, that the time allowed for the permissive use, previous to the compulsory, is much too short, and that it would be better to fix no time at present for the compulsory introduction, but confine the Bill to legalizing its use, and perhaps making its adoption compulsory in Government offices. There would then be opportunity given for every one to watch its operation, without suffering any inconvenience in his own experience ; and so gradually public opinion would be matured upon the matter. At the same time, it will be necessary to define more accurately than is done at present in the Bill, what is meant by permissive, since, clearly, if A is permitted to deliver to B an account made out in terms of units, which B is neither able nor willing to comprehend, that which is permissive to A becomes compulsory to B.

Hoping that this important topic will receive all the attention that it deserves,—I remain, yours truly, F. C.

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III. ON "TO," THE SIGN OF THE INFINITIVE.

SIR,—Can you, or any of your readers, explain to me the origin of *to*, the sign of the infinitive mood? Richardson, in his *Study of Language*, states, that the sign came into use when the A.-S. termination *an* was dropped; and that it is identical both in meaning and origin with the auxiliary verb *do*. He further states, that both these words mean *act* or *cause*, and therefore that the verb *to love* = act or cause love, love itself being simply a noun. In like manner, I do love = I cause (to myself) the sensation—love (pp. 216-225). This is the only explanation of the sign which I have ever met with, but I confess it is scarcely satisfactory to me, and I shall be glad to learn if any other can be given.

A few years ago a question appeared once or twice on the Government examination papers, which is connected with this subject. It was to this effect: When may the sign of the infinitive mood be considered rather as a preposition governing its case than as the sign of a mood? I have never met with a satisfactory answer to this question. Perhaps Mr. Morell refers to it in his Grammar (p. 108), where he says that *to*, the sign of the infinitive mood, is sometimes equivalent in meaning to the preposition *in order to*; as, He eats to live. Still in this case I do not see how *live* can be taken as a noun.—I remain, dear Sir, yours respectfully, BETA.

XII. ABSTRACTS OF OFFICIAL PAPERS.

(1.) *Report of Committee of Council on Education*, 1862-63.

The following important paragraphs are quoted entire from the Committee's Report to Her Majesty; the statistical results will be found on pp. 275-7:—

"We stated in our last Report that 'the training of teachers for their profession, and the maintenance of the institutions existing for that purpose, were engaging our serious attention.' In the Appendix to our present Report will be found a revised syllabus of examination, and a Minute (dated 21st March 1863) which places the grants to normal schools upon a new basis. We have the following remarks to make upon each of these measures:—

"*Syllabus of Examination.*—A syllabus of examination was first published by our predecessors in 1854. It was compiled after communication with the authorities of the several normal schools, and included all that they were teaching. It was never supposed that any one candidate would profess the whole, nor was the whole taught in any one normal school. The syllabus has since undergone various revisions, as experience from time to time discriminated the indispensable subjects. A syllabus regulating examinations necessarily influences study. We may conclude, therefore, from the syllabus in its present form, that the subjects relied upon for training in normal schools are identical in kind with those which it is the business of elementary schools to teach, and are not more advanced in degree than marks the interval by which the teacher ought to precede the scholar. We do not apprehend that real cultivation will be sacrificed by this reduction, and on other grounds we see great advantages in it. These subjects, in the hands of able instructors, may be invested with an interest of their own, and made to stimulate an honourable ambition to excel within, instead of beyond, the circle where the service of trained teachers is required. In proportion as this effect is seen to follow, private support to normal schools is likely to be increased.

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The Royal Commissioners have stated (p. 145) that such schools cannot appeal to local sympathy. We are not prepared to accept this statement without qualification. If the subscribers to elementary schools choose to include among their expenses an occasional allowance of the sum needed to enable the best of their pupil-teachers, or some other scholar of merit, to enter the training school of their diocese, or of the society to which their schools belong, such allowances would be strictly local, and yet have all the effect of subscriptions to the training school. Our grants, as we shall show further on, do not require that the allowance should ever be a large one.

"The same syllabus that regulates the examination of students from normal schools regulates that of acting teachers. The scale of marks allows a certificate to be gained by all indifferently who afford proof of reasonable proficiency in those subjects which no one can deny to be indispensable. The certificate records whether the candidate was examined as a student, or as an acting teacher, and distinguishes proficiency. It marks a pass examination, which may be achieved with or without honours. The latter carry no privilege beyond such as employers may choose to attach to them. We believe that a common examination upon these terms is preferable to separate examinations of students and teachers. We do not defend examination upon any ground of distinction between trained and untrained teachers. We defend it on principles that apply equally to all teachers in schools aided with public grants, and, therefore, we make it the same for all.

"*Grants for the Maintenance of Training Schools.*—There are 40 of these institutions under inspection in Great Britain, and upwards of 3000 students resident in them. The cost to the public in 1862 was £104,700, 11s. 8d. It will be greater in 1863, for the number of students has been increased by 332. Our predecessors in 1859 very properly directed attention to the growth of these establishments, and to their bearing upon the ultimate demand and supply of teachers. A long and anxious consideration of the subject led us to the conclusion that the only effectual escape from the dilemma of ceasing to aid the supply of teachers, or assuming the hopeless task of proportioning supply to demand, was to make the grants, which are now wholly prospective in their character, retrospective. The Minutes hitherto in force offered maintenance and an excellent education, during two years, to young persons who professed the intention of becoming teachers. Candidates upon such terms were not likely to be wanting, nor to be rejected by the managers of normal establishments which were maintained by receiving them. We have provided for the gradual introduction of a plan whereby each college will be paid for those only of its students who are fairly launched in their profession as teachers. Our plan so far conforms to the recommendation of the Royal Commissioners, as to make hardly any reduction in the present average rate of payment upon the same number of students; but a college whose students fail to become teachers will gradually lose its payment. Thus the demand for trained teachers will in time regulate the sum which the State pays for training schools.

"The principle of our Minute is shortly this: we assume £100 to represent the cost of training a male, and £70 that of training a female, student during two years; and we grant to the college five annual payments of £20 for each of its male, and of £14 for each of its female, students who, after probationary service as a teacher, obtains one of our certificates. We limit the total amount of our grant to 75 per cent. of the approved expenditure; and we also make it dependent upon the number of students for the time being in residence, lest we should be making large grants to an empty college.

"*Local Maintenance of Elementary Schools.*—The financial statistics which are appended to our report indicate no failure of local means for the maintenance of elementary schools. The average annual expenditure from such

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sources, per scholar in the five years ending 31st August 1859, was 18s. 7d., and in the last of those five years, 18s. 6¼d.* In—

1860 it was 18s. 8¾d.
1861 ,, 19s. 4½d.
1862 ,, 19s. 7d.

The average of the three years is therefore 19s. 2¾d., or an increase of 3·47 per cent. on the average of the preceding five years.

"It appears from our returns that 153,816 persons subscribed to the support of schools receiving annual grants, and visited by Her Majesty's Inspectors in the past year. The sum set down as their contributions is £287,441; but it is probably right to add to this sum the whole of the balance of expenditure over income (which some one must pay) amounting to £25,743, and the greater part of the sum of £103,618 returned under the head of 'other sources.' The total is not less than £400,000. The Government grants directly made in the same year towards maintaining these schools amounted to £509,212; the scholars' fees, £334,819; endowment, £51,337. Of the subscribers, 9159 contributed £5 and upwards; 62,629 between £5 and £1; 82,028 under £1. If the number 153,816 be compared with 3,043,732, the total number of assessments under the income tax, it is only 5·05 per cent. of the latter number. Mr. Laurie's Report contains an example of methods by which the local means of maintaining a school may be improved."†

(2.) *Tenth Report of the Science and Art Department of the Committee of Council on Education* (1863).

1. SCIENCE.—The second examination of Science classes throughout the United Kingdom was held in May, and the third examination of teachers in November. The increase in the number of classes taught by certificated masters, and of persons under instruction, since the Science Minute of 2d July 1859 came into operation, has been as follows:—

	No. of Classes.	No. under Instruction.
1860, . . .	9 ...	500
1861, . . .	38 ...	1330
1862, . . .	70 ...	2543

The examinations in May were held at 55 local centres; in the previous year the number of centres was 35. The results were as follow:—

	No. examined.	No. of Papers worked.	No. passed.	Prizes.
1861, .	650	1000‡	725	310
1862, .	1239	1943‡	1480	689

The students of seven Irish schools, numbering only 374, were successful in obtaining 149 prizes and 12 medals, out of a total of 689 prizes and 35 medals.

The examination of teachers in November afforded proof of the advance which this branch of the Department is making. The statistics of the last four annual examinations are briefly as follows:—

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Number of candidates,	57	89	103	125
Number who passed,	43	75	97	112

* Report of the Committee of Council on Education, 1859-60, p. xv.
† See above, p. 282.
NOTE.—Candidates are allowed to work papers in more than one subject.

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There are now 237 certificated science teachers, of whom 80 teach classes connected with the Department. All these teachers have been educated without any expenditure of public money by the Department, excepting five or six who were trained before the Minute was passed.

The Aid by Apparatus and Examples has been much reduced, notwithstanding the increase in the number of Science classes. During the past year it amounted to £67, 13s. 6¾d., compared with £155, 13s. 9½d. and £101, 11s. 2d. in the two previous years.

2. ART.—The Central School of Art, at South Kensington, was attended by 358 students, exclusive of the training and free classes in the spring session and 303 students in the autumn session, and the total sum received in fees was £1458, 15s. The class of students in training for masterships numbered 53, and that of free students 62; thus the gradual reduction of the former class and increase of the latter, adverted to in our last Report, has been maintained. Fifty-one certificates have been taken in the school.

The time has arrived when the local schools have become sufficiently advanced in their studies to enable them to train students for masterships up to a certain grade of competency, and we have passed a minute by which no further payments in London will be made to assist students to take the first certificate for a mastership. On the other hand, we propose to revert to the system of scholarships in the Central School, which had been somewhat prematurely established in the Schools of Design. These scholarships will be open to competition to the advanced students of all the local schools, and the holders of them will have the opportunity of making practical use of the collections of the Art Museum.

In 1862, 8896 children of poor schools in London were taught through the agency of the Central School, and the total number of all classes who received instruction was 11,222, being a small decrease on the previous year; which may be ascribed partly to the action of the New Code of the Educational Department, and partly to the distractions of the International Exhibition.

The total number of Schools of Art throughout the United Kingdom is 90.

In the central schools 15,908 persons received instruction during the past year, compared with 15,483 in 1861.

In the public schools 71,423 were taught, compared with 76,303 in 1861.

The results of the examination in drawing of the Diocesan and other Training Colleges are as follow:—

	1860.	1861.	1862.
Number examined, .	2721	2813	2863
Number passed, .	1600	1523	1680
Number of certificates,	79	122	147

Payments on results have for the last ten years formed part of the system by which masters have been remunerated, and the working of the system has been such as to justify its complete adoption. We have accordingly prepared minutes extending the application of this principle to all the instruction given in or through the means of the Art schools. These minutes will also tend to restrict the aid of the State to those classes that are unable to provide such education for themselves.

Aid by Examples was given on 121 requisitions from Art schools and classes, to the amount of £190, 0s. 3½d. In 1861 the amount was £305, 15s. 4d. on 203 requisitions, and in 1860, £417, 14s. 9d. The gradual but healthy reduction referred to in our last Report has therefore been maintained.

The grand total of persons taught drawing through the agency of the

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Department, and the fees paid, etc., during the last three years have been as follow :—

	1860.	1861.	1862.
Numbers taught,	89,481	91,836	87,389
Fees paid, .	£17,221 6 8½	£17,903 1 3	£18,017 10 6

The Art Library was attended by 7592 readers, including 638 subscribers.

The visitors to the Museum were more than double the number of those of any previous year. This is attributable partly to the influx of visitors to the International Exhibition, and partly to the popularity of the exhibition of Art Loans at the South Kensington Museum. The number of visitors during each year since the opening have been as follow :—

1858, .	456,288	1861, .	604,550
1859, .	475,365	1862, .	1,241,369
1860, .	610,696		

3. Geological Survey.—In England and Scotland 2430 square miles were surveyed during the year. In 1861 the area surveyed amounted to 1430.

The survey of Ireland also exhibits an increased area over that of the previous year ; about 1028 square miles of new ground were surveyed, and 1513 linear miles of boundary lines traced ; besides readjustments of 387 square miles, and 650 miles of boundary.

Maps on both the one-inch and the six-inch scale, sections, and memoirs, have been prepared and issued. The sale of these publications exhibits a large increase, and shows that a public want is thus supplied.

4. Expenditure.—

Science and Art Department, South Kensington, including general management, ...		£97,392 4 4
Schools of Science and Geological Museum, Jermyn Street, ...	£6,660 8 3	
Geological Surveys of the United Kingdom,	9,922 13 3	
Industrial Museum, Scotland, . .	2,112 18 2	
Royal Hibernian Academy, . .	300 0 0	
Museum of Irish Industry, . .	4,759 19 3	
Royal Dublin Society, . . .	7,017 0 0	
		30,772 18 11
		£128,165 3 3

(3.) *Sixth Report of the Inspector (Mr. Sydney Turner) appointed to visit the Certified Reformatory and Industrial Schools of Great Britain* (1863).

1. Reformatory Schools.—The number of reformatory schools in Great Britain on 31st December 1862 was 65, viz. :—England, boys 36, girls 16 ; Scotland, boys 6, girls 5 ; and for both boys and girls, 2 ; the buildings being arranged in these for the separate accommodation and instruction of each sex. The number of young offenders under detention in these institutions on the 31st December 1862 was 4536, of whom 242 were on license and 17 in prison, leaving 4266 actually in the schools.

The numbers *under detention* and *newly admitted* during the last five years are as follow :—

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Years.	Under Detention.	New Admissions.
1858, . .	2797	988
1859, . .	3261	1285
1860, . .	3843	1466
1861, . .	4337	1545
1862, . .	4536	1338

It is a matter of great satisfaction that the returns for the year 1862 (made up as usual for the twelve months ending September 30), show a marked decrease in the number of offenders under sixteen years of age, as compared with the year previous,—the total for both sexes being less by 451. The following are the numbers returned for the five years ending September 30, 1862, for England and Wales, of both juvenile and adult commitments :—

Years.	Under Sixteen Years of Age.	Above Sixteen Years of Age.
1858, . .	10,829	107,833
1859, . .	8,913	98,159
1860, . .	8,029	92,585
1861, . .	8,801	103,343
1862, . .	8,349	117,126

In Scotland the returns (made up to the end of June in each year and for offenders of both sexes) show similar results :—

Years.	Offenders under Sixteen.	Offenders above Sixteen.
1858, . .	1,228	16,782
1859, . .	1,230	18,383
1860, . .	1,062	18,218
1861, . .	1,212	17,366
1862, . .	1,120	18,581

The contrast shown by these figures between an increase of above 15,000 in the adult, and a decrease of above 500 in the juvenile classes of criminals is very remarkable, and may fairly be referred to by the promoters of reformatory schools, as showing that the preventive agency which they have brought to bear upon the younger descriptions of offenders has been followed by a remarkable success.

The same favourable conclusion as to the soundness and success of the reformatory system may be drawn from the returns as to the number of prisoners during the year who were recognised or traced as having been in a reformatory school.

The figures show that the re-convictions for *English* reformatories amounted to nearly 5 per cent. on the number discharged from Protestant schools, to 11 per cent. for those from Catholic girls', and to 18 per cent. for those from Catholic boys' schools. The percentage of re-convictions for the *Scotch* reformatories appears to be—for Protestant boys nearly 6 per cent., for Protestant girls 5 per cent. ; for Catholic boys 15 per cent., and for Catholic girls 54 per cent.

A long sentence, an efficient and religious master, industrial training, and a conditional release under a ticket-of-leave,* whose conditions are carefully enforced, lie at the foundation of the success which our best reformatory schools have attained ; and in proportion as *all* these four conditions are observed, this success may be expected to be more decided, and the benefits conferred by the reformatory system more general and lasting.

The whole number of admissions for Great Britain was 1338 ; of these,

* NOTE.—It is much to be regretted that the power of thus discharging "on license" does not extend to Scotland.

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275 were children under 12, and 781, or about 5-9ths of the whole, were sent on a *first* commitment.

The total receipts and expenditure on account of reformatory schools for the year 1862 were as follows :—

The total expenditure for the year was . . .					£92,396	12 8
The receipts were—						
Treasury payments for maintenance,	£68,140	14	1			
Parents' payments through Inspector,	2,564	9	1			
Subscriptions, legacies, etc., .	11,250	13	9			
Contributions from rates, . .	7,055	17	6			
Contributions from Voluntary Associations, and payments for voluntary inmates, . . .	798	5	7			
Sundries, ...	2083	17	6			
Total, .					£91,893	17 6

The average cost per head in English reformatories was, for boys, £19, 19s. 3d.; for girls, £18, 16s. 5d. It must be remarked that the "cost per head" includes only the expenses of maintenance and management and industrial training. Rent of school premises and expenses for outfit, passage to colonies, etc., on disposal, are taken separately. The total expenditure of the reformatories exceeded the amount of the Treasury allowance, which is now fixed at 6s. per week, or £15, 12s. per annum, by upwards of £20,000. Of this, one-third, or about £7000, was contributed from the rates, and £12,000 from voluntary subscriptions.

The "parents' payments" have been necessarily affected by the diminished employment, and consequent distress, of a large proportion of our manufacturing population. They amounted for 1862 to £2564, 9s. 1d. (the amount for 1861 being £2428, 12s. 8d.)

2. Certified Industrial Schools.—The total number of schools of this class certified in Great Britain is 45, viz., England 25, and in Scotland 20. The number of children under magistrates' order increased during the year from 297 boys and 183 girls on December 31, 1861, to 641 boys and 308 girls on December 31, 1862. Of the 420 boys and 171 girls admitted during the year, 18 were under 7, and 69 between 7 and 9 years of age. The particulars of the circumstances of the children admitted as to parentage and family, very strongly illustrate the value of the Act which authorizes the magistrate to interfere for their rescue. Twelve were illegitimate; 57 deserted; 29 were wholly orphans; 194 had lost either father or mother; the parents of 25 others were in gaol, under sentence of imprisonment. To protect and train to industry such children must be at once a duty and an advantage.

The amount contributed by parents and parochial authorities towards the maintenance of the children under detention was £1061, 16s. 8d.

(4.) *Oxford Local Examinations*—1863.

As we mentioned in last Number, the total number of candidates who offered themselves for their examination in June last was 1071. Of these, 1030—viz., 763 juniors, and 267 seniors—went through the examination. Of the 41 absentees, 36 either withdrew before the examination, or were prevented by illness from completing it, and the papers of 5,—4 juniors and 1 senior,—were cancelled for "copying" during the examination.

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The general results of the examination will be found in the following tables, which are compiled from the Official Division Lists and Supplementary Tables issued by the Delegacy :—

TABLE I.—JUNIOR CANDIDATES.

Centre.	No. Examined.	Passed.	Per cent. to No. Examined.	Honours.	Failed because of Prelim.	S. in Preliminary.	S.* in Religion.	S. in Latin.	S. in Greek.	S. in French.	S. in German.	S. in Mathem.	S. in Mechanics.	S. in Chemistry.	S. in Drawing.	S. in Music.
Oxford, . .	29	20	69	6	5	23	12	10	5	7	3	19	2	1	6	1
London, . .	191	110	58	35	26	135	81	66	20	40	7	97	1	5	24	2
Bath, . . .	67	46	68	22	4	51	46	32	16	9	8	43	0	0	7	0
Birmingham,	38	14	37	4	5	25	18	17	7	7	0	5	0	0	7	0
Brighton, .	32	16	50	2	6	20	17	9	5	5	0	10	1	0	3	0
Exeter, . .	55	48	87	14	1	53	37	17	1	9	0	46	0	0	9	0
Gloucester, .	20	15	75	8	2	16	17	13	7	2	0	13	1	2	5	1
Leeds, . . .	55	34	62	11	5	45	14	18	9	6	1	30	0	1	4	0
Lincoln, . .	10	8	80	3	1	9	10	3	0	2	0	8	0	0	2	0
Liverpool, .	78	53	68	19	8	59	46	28	7	12	3	48	4	18	14	0
Manchester, .	121	83	68	30	12	94	51	56	15	28	6	62	0	11	15	2
Northampton,	22	13	59	8	5	14	14	8	0	3	0	18	3	0	4	0
Nottingham,	21	14	67	3	2	16	9	9	1	3	0	13	3	0	8	0
Southampton,	24	13	54	2	4	19	14	5	1	1	0	14	0	1	6	0
Total, .	763	487	63·8	168	86	579	386	291	94	134	28	426	15	39	117	6

TABLE II.—SENIOR CANDIDATES.

Centre.	Number Examined.	Number Passed.	Per Cent. to No. Examined	Honours. Aggregate.	Failed because of Preliminary.	S. in Preliminary.	S. in Religion.	S. in A. English.	S. in B. Languages.	S. in C. Mathem.	S. in D. Physics.	S. in E. Drawing.	S. in F. Music.
Oxford, ...	13	10	77	0	0	12	12	12	5	6	1	0	0
London, ...	80	49	65	11	5	61	53	75	41	32	6	7	1
Bath, ...	14	9	64	3	1	12	11	14	7	8	0	2	0
Birmingham, . . .	10	8	80	3	2	8	8	10	6	7	1	0	0
Brighton, ...	10	4	40	1	0	5	6	7	6	3	0	0	0
Exeter, ...	27	12	44	3	3	17	22	23	10	9	0	1	1
Gloucester, . . .	5	4	80	2	0	5	5	4	4	3	1	2	0
Leeds, ...	14	10	71	1	1	11	5	13	6	8	1	2	0
Lincoln, ...	2	2	100	1	0	2	2	2	2	1	0	1	0
Liverpool, ...	24	16	67	6	4	17	19	21	17	11	2	1	3
Manchester, . . .	37	18	49	2	13	20	21	34	22	14	2	4	0
Northampton, . . .	8	5	63	0	1	6	5	8	2	6	0	0	0
Nottingham, . . .	6	5	83	0	0	5	5	5	4	5	1	0	0
Southampton, . . .	17	5	29	0	4	10	11	14	7	6	4	2	1
Total, .	267	157	59	33	34	191	185	242	139	119	19	22	6

The first column contains only the number of those who actually completed the examination. The fourth column (Honours) includes both those who passed in the first and in the second division. Considerable interest attaches to the fifth column, showing,—not the total number who failed in the preliminary examination,—but the number who showed the requisite attainments in the higher subjects, and who, but for their failure in the elementary subjects, would have obtained a certificate or a title. The total number of such cases is 120. One or two of these are such as to excite our sympathy, and it is really a question whether some special provision should

* S. = "Satisfied the Examiners."

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not be made for them. For example, we find that one of the Bath junior candidates (No. 18) "satisfied the Examiners" in the Rudiments of Faith and Religion, in Latin, in Greek, in German, and in Mathematics, so well as to be entitled to a place in the second division of honours, and yet was "plucked" because of his failure in elementary arithmetic, though he must have satisfied the examiner in the higher arithmetical paper included in "mathematics." Nos. 8 and 13, Oxford, are similarly hard cases, though not perhaps equally so. The special causes of failure in the preliminary examination will be seen in the following table, from which it appears that arithmetic was the "crux" in the case of seniors; and in that of juniors, English history.

TABLE III.—FAILURES IN PRELIMINARY SUBJECTS.

	Total.	In Analysis.	In History.	In Geog.	In Spelling.	In Compos.	In Reading.	In Writing.	In Arith.
Seniors,.....	76	15	28	15	14	1	...	...	43
Juniors,.....	184	43	102	64	33	6	7	0	50

It is important to observe the direction in which these examinations tend, as regards the branches of study and the kind of education chiefly encouraged. We have always thought it a weak point in the examinations, that they appear to attach the same value to French and Chemistry as to Latin and Mathematics. We are not aware what numerical value the Delegacy attach to each subject in making up the aggregate results; but there is no doubt that a junior, who passes in the Preliminary and in Chemistry, obtains the same "certificate" as one who passes in Latin and Greek. It is satisfactory, however, to see that the candidates in the first divisions—both of seniors and of juniors—have gained their proficiency by their attainments in the higher branches of instruction, as the following tables (IV. and V.) will shew:—

TABLE IV.—FIRST DIVISION OF JUNIORS.

Number who passed in each Subject.

In Preliminary (all the candidates),	39	In Drawing,	4
In Religion,	30	In Music,	1
In 1. Latin,	36	Passed in 4 of the 7 essential subjects,	19
In 2. Greek,	25	Passed in 3 of the 7 essential subjects,	19
In 3. French,	20	Passed in 2 of the 7 essential subjects,	1
In 4. German,	4		
In 5. Mathematics,	39		
In 6. Mechanics,	4		
In 7. Chemistry,	4		

TABLE V.—FIRST DIVISION OF SENIORS.

Number who passed in each Section.

In Preliminary (all the candidates),	9
In Religion,	7
In A. English (Div. I. 4; II. 4; III. 1),	9
In B. Languages (Div. I. 8; II. 1),	9

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In C. Mathematics (Div. I. 3; II. 2; III. 4),	9
In D. Physics.	0
In E. Drawing (Div. II. 1),	1
In F. Music,	0
Passed in 4 sections (A, B, C, D),	0
Passed in 3 sections,	9

Those who saw the examination papers in June will remember the surprise with which, on the morning of the examination, they found a notice prefixed to the questions on the Rudiments of Faith and Religion, to the effect that "No one examined in the whole of this section can obtain a certificate without showing some knowledge of each of the two portions, *whatever may be the value of his work in other subjects.*" The effect of this was not only to make the two parts of this department as indispensable as the preliminary subjects, but to make them thus indispensable for some and not for others. The unexpectedness, moreover, with which the intimation fell upon all the parties interested, on the morning of the examination, led to so many remonstrances, that the Delegacy agreed, for this year, to relax the stringent enactment. The number of those who, *conscientiæ causâ*, have this year declined this part of the examination is smaller even than last year. Last year 26 per cent. declined religion, this year only 24 per cent. do so, and of these only 7 per cent. decline the whole examination; the other 17 per cent. accept the historical part of it, and decline only the doctrinal.

The large number of juniors who have passed in Mathematics is exciting considerable remark. Of the juniors, more pass in this subject that in anything else, and every one in the first honour divisions has succeeded here, though the same cannot be said for any other subject. This may be due to the superiority of the mathematical teaching in our schools; it is more likely, however, to be owing to the greater liberality of the mathematical examiner in allotting the values for his department.

(5.) *Competitive Examination of Candidates for Junior Appointments in the Engineer Establishment of the Department of Public Works in India, to be held at the India Office in London, in June* 1864.

Candidates must be native British subjects, and not more than twenty-three years of age, and must have complied with one or other of the three following conditions:—

1. They must have passed not less than three years as articled pupils of a civil, mechanical, or mining engineer; or,

2. Not less than three years in practice under a civil, mechanical, or mining engineer; or,

3. Not less than three years altogether, of which part may have been passed in practice under a civil, mechanical, or mining engineer, and part in studying civil, mechanical, or mining engineering, in a school or college recognised by the Secretary of State as possessing an efficient class for instruction in one or other of those professions, with the proviso that one year at least of the three must have been passed in practice under a civil, mechanical, or mining engineer.

On these points they must be provided with satisfactory certificates, and they must also produce testimonials of good moral character and conduct from the engineers or professors under whom they have served, or by whom they have been instructed.

These documents must be delivered at the Department of Public Works in this office between the 1st and 28th days of May next, both inclusive, during which period only will applications be received.

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The names of the candidates will then be registered, and they will be directed to appear for medical examination before the examining physician, who will attend at this office for the purpose, on the first Saturday in June, between the hours of 1 and 3 P.M.

If then certified to be constitutionally fit for service in India, they will be required to attend, at 9 A.M. precisely, on the succeeding Monday and five following days at a competitive examination which will be held in this office.

The Candidates will first be required to write English from dictation, and unless found able to do so with accuracy and facility will not be permitted to remain during the subsequent examination. The other subjects of examination and the maximum number of marks obtainable for proficiency in each class of subjects will be the following :—

Mathematics.

Arithmetic, mensuration, and *trigonometry,* including heights and distances, .	229
Algebra: elementary principles; simple and quadratic equations; surds; ratios and proportion; arithmetical and geometrical progression; combinations, and the binomial theorem, ...	
Euclid: 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 6th, and first 21 Propositions of the 11th Book, .	
Statics: composition and resolution of forces, the centre of gravity, the mechanical power; roofs, arches, and bridges; strength of materials; and friction, ...	180
Dynamics: first principles; collision of bodies; uniformly accelerated motion; circular motion and centifrugal force; labour and machinery, . .	
Hydrostatics and *hydraulics:* pressure of fluids; specific gravity, and equilibrium of floating bodies; elastic fluids and atmospheric pressure; hydrostatic machines, ...	

Engineering.

Projects for bridges, locks, dams, roads, and other engineering works, .	280
Making working drawings of machinery and plans, elevations and sections of buildings, ...	
Carpentry, iron-work, and properties of materials in general, . . .	
Free-hand drawing, ...	
Map drawing, ...	
Framing of estimates and specifications from given plans and data, . .	80

Surveying.

Trigonometrical Surveying and traversing with the theodolite, . .	240
Land-surveying with compass and chain, and plotting from a field-book, .	
Levelling and use of the instruments employed, ...	
Geometrical drawing, ...	
	1000

No candidate will be passed who shall not obtain 600 marks, of which not less than 200 must be awarded for mathematics, not less than 180 for engineering, and not less than 100 for surveying. The candidates who may obtain the prescribed minimum number of marks will be ranked by the examiners in the order of the numbers they may severally obtain; and of these the ten who may stand highest on the list will be appointed "Probationary Assistant Engineers."

Each probationary assistant engineer must, within a month of his nomination, sign a covenant, describing the terms and conditions of his appointment, and must embark for India when required to do so by the Secretary of State in Council, who will provide for the expenses of his passage. Any nominee not embarking when required, will forfeit his appointment. Otherwise he will be allowed pay, at the rate of 170 rupees (which is about the equivalent of £17 in English money) a month, from the date of his appointment.

On arriving in India, he will, at the discretion of the Local Government,

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either be placed in a civil engineering college, or other educational institution, in order to acquire a colloquial knowledge of one of the native languages, and to receive further instruction in his profession, or be at once employed as a civil engineer, and if found sufficiently qualified he will, on the occurrence of a suitable vacancy, be transferred to the effective establishment of the Public Works Department, with the rank to which his attainments may entitle him, and with all the rights and privileges appertaining to that rank in respect of pay, promotion, furlough, retiring pension, etc.

(6.) *Memorandum from the Committee of the National Society to the Committee of Council on Education, on their Minute of May* 19, 1863.*

The Committee of the National Society desire to call their Lordships' serious attention to two matters dealt with by their Lordships in their Minute of May 19, 1863.

First, as to *Endowed Schools.* It seems almost superfluous to point out that to treat as if it were public money, at the disposal of a Government office, the proceeds of private benevolence, must prevent the extension of such liberality. But, under any circumstances, it seems to the Committee of the Society that the proposed Minute will work most unfairly. Take the case of schools in two parishes similarly situated in respect of population and wealth, each with an average attendance of 100 children. School *A* raises £28 from local contributions, £27 from children's pence, and receives under the Revised Code, at the rate of 8s. per head, £40; total £95. School *B* has an endowment of £30 per annum; the managers, as in parish *A*, raise £27 from children's pence, and £28 from local contributions, and would be entitled to £40 under the Revised Code; total £125. But the new Minute steps in, and reduces this £40 to £10; making the total income £95. It will be seen that the object of the benefactor who either granted or bequeathed the endowment is defeated, that the school derives no benefit whatever from his liberality, and that the endowment is in fact confiscated to the public revenue.

If it should be urged that, by means of the endowment, an inequality is created between the remuneration of teachers under similar circumstances, it should not be forgotten that it is of importance that this poorly-paid class of persons should have some positions to look to of higher emolument than others; and, further, that in this way schools of a superior order are scattered over the country, which raise the general standard of education, and give opportunities to children to receive a more advanced instruction than is furnished in the school of their own parish.

The Committee would further remark that, on the faith of the advantage to be derived from endowments, buildings of an expensive character have been frequently erected, which must now be rendered almost useless from the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of continuing the class of school which the endowment had enabled the managers to support.

When the Revised Code, after much consideration, was finally sanctioned by Parliament, the Committee of the National Society hoped that no great change would be immediately introduced into it, especially no change which had not been suggested by subsequent experience.

On grounds, therefore, both of policy and of justice, the Committee of the Society ask their Lordships to withdraw this part of their late Minute, and to revert to the arrangements made with respect to endowed schools in the Revised Code, as settled last year.

Inspectors' Assistants.—It is provided by the Order in Council, of August

* Return to an Address of the House of Lords, dated 17th July 1863.

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10, 1840, that in the appointment of any person to inspect schools in connexion with the National Society or the Church of England, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York should be consulted, each with regard to his own province. The Committee beg to observe that there is no similar provision in the new Minute in regard to the proposed assistants, and that these officers can therefore claim no entrance as of right into the above-named schools. They would therefore urge that the duties of those assistants should be strictly confined to examination in the subjects prescribed by Section 48 of the Revised Code, and in the presence of the Inspector. It appears desirable that these limitations should be made for other reasons. The managers and teachers of schools are likely to regard with jealousy the visits of persons not holding the position nor possessing the qualifications of the Queen's Inspectors, and sometimes not superior, or even equal, in ability or attainments, to the masters whose schools they are examining.

(6.) *St. Ive School Correspondence.*

A Correspondence between the Rev. R. Hobham, Rector of St. Ive (Liskeard), and the Secretary of the Committee of Council, respecting the salary of the Master of St. Ive (Liskeard) National School, has been printed by order of the House of Commons.

The managers wish to know whether their school was disqualified from receiving a grant under the Revised Code, in consequence of the master not being "duly paid." His agreement is for £40, which, with school-pence, would be increased to about £49. The amount due to him on his certificate under the Old Code was £25, so that (Rev. Code, 51 b) he is not "duly paid" unless he receives three times that, or £75.

Mr. Lingen replies, that he will *not* be "duly paid" unless he receives £75.

The managers enter into a new agreement, promising the sum of £64, 10s., of which £21, 10s. shall be the "first charge" on the sum received under the Revised Code.

Mr. Lingen demands a copy of the new agreement. When received, he declares it null and void; because the managers cannot agree both to give £64, 10s., and to make a portion of that chargeable on 51 b. "The existence of such a contract virtually puts your school out of the limits of the Revised Code." In a subsequent letter he adds, that "the charge under Article 51 b, Revised Code, cannot be created by agreement, but arises in the absence or on the breach of an agreement." He closes the same letter by telling the managers that they are trying to secure "a larger grant to the school than the Revised Code was intended to insure."

In reply, the managers "beg leave to repudiate the uncalled-for insinuation" that they are "seeking for a larger grant than the Revised Code was intended to allow." "It is quite as competent to us," they add, "to say that you are seeking to deprive him of that which was officially promised, and thought to be solemnly secured to him by Parliamentary authority."

(7.) *Working Men's Club and Institute Union.*

From the First Annual Report of this Union, of which Lord Brougham is President, we make the following extracts:—

The Union has been formed for the purpose of helping working men to establish Clubs or Institutes where they can meet for conversation, business, and mental improvement, with the means of recreation and refreshment, free from the temptations of the public-house; these Clubs, at the same time, constituting societies for mutual helpfulness in various ways.

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It was proposed that the Union should assist in improving existing Associations, as well as promote the establishment of Clubs or Institutes where no such Associations may now be found. These various Associations, Clubs, or Institutes were to be invited to become registered members of the Union.

The objects of the Union were to be carried out in the following manner:—

1. By correspondence with friends of the movement and with the officers of existing Associations throughout the kingdom.

2. By personal visits, by their own officers and by honorary deputations, to such places as might seem to require to be visited. At these visits conferences were to be held with the Working Classes, and with others in the locality who may be interested in the object.

3. By the dissemination of tracts, or special papers, on subjects lying within the sphere of the Society's operations.

4. By supplying instructions for the guidance of persons who might wish to establish Clubs or Institutes; together with rules to define their objects, and to regulate their proceedings.

5. By grants or loans of Books for Club Libraries, Apparatus, Diagrams, etc., to societies in membership with the Union, in cases where local circumstances might seem to call for such aid.

6. By grants of money in special cases, by way of loan or otherwise, towards the building, enlarging, or altering Club-houses, or procuring recreation grounds, for Societies in the Union.

The Union has now been in existence about a year, and in active operation for the last nine months. The following is a statement of the work which has been accomplished during that period:—

1. Public and private meetings have been held to promote the formation or development of Clubs in thirty-five places, including Birmingham, Bristol, Lancaster, Leeds, Southampton, and Wolverhampton. These meetings have, in most instances, given rise to the immediate formation of new Clubs, or have been the means of improving those which already existed.

2. The following publications* have been issued and very extensively circulated:—"Hints and Suggestions for the Formation and Management of Working Men's Clubs and Institutes;" "Working Men: A Glance at Some of their Wants; with Reasons and Suggestions for Helping Them to Help Themselves;" "Conditions and Advantages of Membership of Local Societies with the Union;" "Occasional Papers (Nos. 1 and 2) on the Formation, Progress, and Results of Working Men's Clubs, Halls, and Institutes;" "Reply to Inquiries respecting Provision for Management, etc., of Proposed Clubs;" "A Few Words to Working Men about Social Clubs and Institutes."

3. Thirteen Clubs have been established by the agency of the Union, and are enrolled in it as affiliated Societies.

Fourteen Clubs which were previously in existence, have been received into connexion with the Union.

Ten Clubs have been or are being formed, under the impulse and advice of the Union, but are not yet affiliated.

In addition to these, several Clubs are now being organized in other localities. In all, twenty-three Clubs have been established by the Union, and the number of members on their books may be estimated at about 4760; but, as the numbers fluctuate considerably, especially in the summer season, this can only be taken as an approximate estimate.

Seventeen Clubs or Institutes, which were previously in operation, have received the advice or assistance of the Council.

The work still to be accomplished by the Union consists—(1) in awakening local attention to the desirableness of establishing Clubs, in procuring the requisite local support for them, and in giving suitable guidance for their

* We have been favoured with copies of these interesting documents.

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foundation on sound principles; (2) in assisting, by personal visits, correspondence, and similar means, to strengthen or renovate Clubs which already exist; and (3) in developing the full capacities of the Clubs for usefulness, throughout the country, by co-operation with one another and with the Union.

From a statement of the accounts, it appears that the receipts for the past year amounted to £730, of which, after defraying all expenses, there will remain an available balance of £175.

(8.) *The Educational census of Ireland for* 1861.

The Commissioners who were appointed to take the census of Ireland on the 7th of April 1861, have just presented a report upon the ages and education of the people of that country, the "parish" being now, for the first time, adopted as the unit of territorial division in the formation of the general tables. The population of Ireland, on the 6th of June 1841, was 8,175,124; on the 30th of March 1851, 6,552,385; and on the 7th of April 1863, 5,798,967. In 1851 the proportion of females to 1000 males in the entire Irish population was 1054; while in 1861 it was 1044. Since the last decennial period, the employment of examinations—whether "competitive" as a test of superiority, or "qualifying" as a test of absolute fitness for admission to the public service—has concurred with the rivalry of the school systems in bringing about a great increase as well in the number as in the variety of schools in Ireland. Respecting the diminution of ignorance the Commissioners say:—"We have now, as in 1851, the gratification to record a decrease in the proportion of those who can neither read nor write. In 1851 the diminution in the numbers of the absolutely ignorant, compared with those returned as such in 1841, amounted to 4 per cent. of the male, and 8 per cent. of the female population. The returns of 1861, as compared with 1851, show 7 per cent. males, and 9 per cent. females. This decline is due in a notable degree to the general decrease of the people by emigration; for we believe that a very large share of the emigrants from Ireland belonged to the class of the ignorant. But the principal cause, we believe, is to be found in the regular spread of instruction, owing to the increased number and efficiency of the primary schools. At the date of our returns, the Queen's University had nearly reached its thirteenth year. By its calendars it appears that the number of degrees conferred during the census period from 1851 to 1861, was 379. The only other institution in Ireland of an university character is that known as the 'Catholic University,' in the city of Dublin, which, although not having a charter, administers instruction, *primâ facie*, of the same description as that usually given in universities. To these should be added other collegiate establishments in which students may qualify for the exercise of a learned profession without resort to a university. The principal establishment of this class is the Royal College of Maynooth. The number of students returned for the 7th April 1861, was 519. The institution of this class next in importance is the Missionary College of All Hallows. The proportion of those who read and write was increased 5 per cent. between 1841 and 1851, and that of the ignorant was diminished 6 per cent. during the like period. During the last decade the rate of increase and decrease between those two extremes respectively has been 8 per cent. The decrease between 1851 and 1861, of the population of five years old and upwards, was 802,758, and the decrease in the number of ignorant no less than 792,901, or within 9857 of the former number. In April 1861, there were nine reformatories in Ireland, six of which, four for girls and two for boys, have been certified for Roman

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Catholics, and three for Protestants, viz., two for boys, and one for girls. Four of these Reformatory Schools are metropolitan. In April 1861, the number of juvenile offenders detained in them was 406, of whom 300 were males and 106 females. As regards instruction, 209 boys and 52 girls were returned as able to read and write; 64 boys and 43 girls as being able to read only; and 27 boys and 11 girls not able to read or write."

The following Statistics of Education are taken from the "Tables on Ages and Education:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Number who could read and write, in 1861,	1,209,603	896,355	2,105.958
Number who could read only, " "	409,981	612,806	1,022,787
Number who could neither read nor write, in 1861,	862,498	1,110,884	1,973,382
Proportion per cent. who could read and write, in 1841,	37	18	55
in 1851,	41	25	66
in 1861,	49	34	83
Proportion per cent. who could read only, in 1841,	17	23	40
in 1851,	17	24	41
in 1861,	16	24	40
Proportion per cent. who could neither read nor write, in 1841,	46	59	105
in 1851,	42	51	93
in 1861,	35	42	77
Number of persons who speak Irish only,	70,650	92,625	163,275
Number of persons who speak Irish and English,	477,039	465,222	942,261
Total,	547,689	557,847	1,105,536
During week ended 13th April 1861—			
Number of pupils attending primary schools,	220,796	193,720	414,516
Number of pupils attending superior schools,	12,785	8,034	20,819
Number of students attending colleges,	1,538	...	1,538
Total,	235,119	201,754	436,873
Per-centage of pupils five and under fifteen years to population of same age,	33·4	29·9	31·7
Per-centage of total number of pupils to total population,	8·3	6·8	7·5

	Primary Schools.	Superior Schools.	Colleges.	Total.
Number of schools and colleges,	9,428	729	73	10,170

(9.) *Report on the Condition and Progress of the Queen's University in Ireland.*

The General University Examinations of the current year commenced on the 30th of September 1862, and terminated on the 28th of October. Examinations for degrees in the Faculty of Medicine were also held in June;

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and first University examinations in Arts and Engineering were held in May. At these various examinations 221 candidates presented themselves.

In addition to these examinations for members of the University, the first Local Examinations for the examination of candidates who are not members, were held simultaneously in the month of June last at Dublin, Belfast, and Galway, in accordance with the provisions of the Ordinance of the 30th of January 1860, as printed in the appendix to last Report; 34 candidates presented themselves for middle-class certificates; and of these, 15 passed; 8 as senior, and 7 as junior candidates.

At the public meeting of the University, held in 1861, Sir Robert Peel declared his intention to devote £1200 to the augmentation of the prizes offered in the Queen's Colleges; at the public meeting of the year 1862, he was able to announce that this sum has been raised to nearly £10,000 by public subscription.

XIII. RETROSPECT OF THE QUARTER.

I. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.—*Oxford—Local Examinations.*—In a convocation holden on July 6, a decree was proposed, and unanimously accepted by the House, authorizing the delegates, under the Statute "De Examinatione Candidatorum qui non sunt de corpore Universitatis," to grant certificates, for the present year only, to candidates who may not have fully complied with that part of the Statute which relates to the examination in the Rudiments of Faith and Religion. This decree was requisite in consequence of the lateness of the time at which the notice was issued, requiring all candidates to show some knowledge in the liturgical portion of the examination before they could obtain certificates, unless their parents should have declined on their behalf an examination in such portion.

There will be an election at Queen's College to two Fellowships on Monday the 19th of October. Candidates are requested to call on the Provost on Monday the 12th.

On Saturday, the 10th of October, there will be an election to a Scholarship of £75 per annum, tenable for five years; to an Ecclesfield Exhibition of £75 per annum, tenable for four years; and to a Holme Exhibition of £80. The scholarship and exhibitions are open to all under the age of twenty years, without any regard to place of birth. Candidates are required to present the usual testimonials to the Provost before 10 A.M. of Wednesday the 7th of October, when the examination will begin.

There will be an election at Magdalen College, in October next, to Fellowship; the holder of which will not be required to take Holy Orders. The examination will be in subjects recognised in the School of Natural Science, and no papers will be given in Mathematics or Literæ Humaniores. Candidates must have passed all the examinations required by the University of Oxford or the University of Cambridge for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; and must not be in possession of any ecclesiastical benefice, or of any property, Government pension, or office tenable for life or during good behaviour (not being an academical office within the University of Oxford), the clear annual value of which shall exceed £230. They must also produce testimonials of their fitness to become fellows of the college as a place of religion, learning, and education, and a certificate of baptism, to be sent in to the President on or before Monday the 5th of October.

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Candidates are required to call upon the President on Monday, the 19th of October, between the hours of three and six, or eight and nine P.M. The examination will commence on the following day.

There will be an election at Magdalen College in October next, to eight Demyships and two Exhibitions, of the value (room-rent and tuition included) of £75 per annum, and tenable for five years from the day of election. Of the demyships one will be mathematical and one in natural science, the rest classical. Of the exhibitions one will be mathematical, the other classical.

There will be an election to a Clerical Fellowship in the same college on the 20th of October. The examination will be chiefly in subjects recognised in the school of Literæ Humaniores, and no papers will be given in mathematics or natural science.

It is understood that Prince Frederick of Denmark is entered at Christ Church, and will become a resident in Oxford at the commencement of the ensuing term. The Rev. Mr. Kitchin, of Christ Church, Junior Proctor, has been appointed tutor to the young Prince; and the residence of Mr. Alderman Randall, of Grandpont, has been engaged for the accommodation of himself and suite.

Cambridge.—The Law Lecturer of Trinity Hall gives notice that his special course of lectures for the selected candidates for the Indian Civil Service will commence on the 20th of October next. The subjects for the Michaelmas Term will be *Justinian's Institutes* (Sandars's edition), M'Naghten's *Elements of Hindoo and Mahomedan Law* (Wilson's edition), Mill's *History of India*. The fee for attendance for those who are not members of the College is £6 per term. Selected candidates who intend to join the class should apply for directions as to their reading to the Law Lecturer, Trinity Hall.

Edinburgh.—The ceremony of capping the Graduates in Medicine took place on August 1, Principal Sir David Brewster presiding. Eighty gentlemen received the degree of M.D. In the closing address, Professor Lyon Playfair confined his attention principally to a consideration of the means of improving public as well as private health. He stated, that in all except the middle ages, sanitary legislation had endeavoured to grapple with the ills which affected public health. He referred in proof of this to the hygienic laws of Moses, the laws of Talencus, the appointment of physicians in Greece and Rome, solely to watch over the sanitary condition of the various countries connected with them. But in the barbarism of the middle ages the plague visited and made a home of every country in Europe. After repeated attacks of this disease on London, the attention of the legislators was directed to the necessity of exalting the status of the medical profession, and the King, under the advice of Cardinal Wolsey, established the College of Physicians in 1518. Under their able efforts the plague gradually disappeared, and after the great fire of London it entirely ceased to visit this country. The Professor went on to state, that removable zymotic diseases of other kinds still remained, to which he wished to direct the attention of the students. The plague prevails in Egypt every ten years. This arose from the beastly condition of the people. The plague of Egypt becomes the typhus of a more moderate climate. This arises directly from the influence of decaying matter, foul ventilation, and bad water. Here, then, was a field of usefulness in which they could labour. The disease was preventible, yet in 1861 it destroyed 15,000 people. He would wish to stimulate the students to give their care and attention to prevent and extinguish such fires of disease and pestilence. In concluding, the Professor counselled the students on the danger of leaving off the study of the natural sciences, with a view to keeping up greater familiarity with those studies bearing more immediately on

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the practice of their profession. He wished, therefore, to impress upon them, that, in the present state of the world, medicine pursued as an art must be grounded on the sciences, and it was their duty to apply these sciences to practical uses in the art.

Sir David Baxter has funded £3000, for the purpose of establishing two Fellowships in this University, of the value of £60 each per annum. The Fellowships, which are to be tenable for two years, will be open to all Graduates in Arts of not more than four years' standing.

St. David's College, Lampeter.—In accordance with a scheme recently prepared by the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, and confirmed by her Majesty in Council, this college has received a further endowment, the object being to extend the course of education "so as to be equivalent to the ordinary course of education for a Bachelor's Degree at the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge." The endowment will provide two new professorships, and a large number of additional scholarships, to the amount of more than £300 per annum. These will be open to all candidates without any restriction.

Queen's College, Belfast.—It appears from the report of the President of Queen's College, Belfast, for the year ending March 1, 1863, presented to Parliament, that the total number of students in 1852-53 was 154; now there are in attendance 388; of these 335 are matriculated. During this session 137 young men entered the college for the first time, of whom 115 are matriculated. Since the session 1857-58, there has been an increase in the whole numbers in attendance of 181. Besides the 137 freshmen, four other students entered the college, but having ceased to attend, their names have been erased from the rolls.

Trinity College, Dublin.—The Board of Trinity College have resolved to correct a great abuse. Sizarships were established for the benefit of indigent students, but for many years they have been competed for by the sons of men of property, the holders of Royal scholarships, and persons trained by extreme "cramming" to compete for honours. The result was that the poor student, who enjoyed no such advantages, was deprived of what was intended for his exclusive benefit. The Board have therefore passed the following resolution:—"That in future candidates for sizarships shall, through their parents or guardians, a week before the examination for sizarships, furnish to the Registrar full information as to their circumstances, and that those persons only should be permitted to offer themselves for examination who are eligible on the ground of poverty."

II.—Educational Intelligence.—*The Revised Code.*—In reply to Sir J. Pakington, Mr. Lowe explained that the interpretation to be put upon the 151st and the 150th articles of the Revised Code was this:—By the former, any revision or alteration in the Code should be laid on the table of the House for one month before the Council could act upon it; and by the latter, all changes introduced into the Code in the course of the year should be printed and published in a fresh edition on the 1st of January each year. With respect to the time for taking exception to a minute, he had to state, that the minutes of the Privy-Council had no force except when they met with the implied approval of Parliament; and it was therefore competent for any member to take exception to a minute at any time. But he should add that, if an honourable member desired to prevent a minute from coming into force, the proper time to take the objection would be when the minute was laid upon the table of the House.

Navigation Schools.—Sir H. Stacey asked the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, Whether the intended regulations applying to navigation schools, to come into operation on the 1st of January 1864, could not be so altered as to make it compulsory on the applicants for the

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rank of master or mate to acquire the subjects laid down as necessary to produce the results upon which the teachers at the navigation schools were to be paid? Mr. Lowe said it was not in the power of the Education Committee to make the alteration suggested by the honourable baronet.

Inns of Court.—A public examination of candidates for honours, or certificates entitling students to be called to the Bar, will be held at Lincoln's Inn on the 29th, 30th, and 31st October. The subjects of examination will be Constitutional Law and Legal History, Equity, Common Law, Law of Real Property, Jurisprudence, and the Civil Laws. The examination will be partly by writing, and partly oral. The best candidate in the examination obtains a studentship of fifty guineas per annum for three years; and all holding certificates of honour take rank in seniority over other students on being called to the Bar.

Army Examinations.—The next examination of candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, will commence on Thursday, the 17th of December next, at Chelsea Hospital; and that for admission to the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, on Monday the 4th of January 1864, at the same place.

Mr. Adderley's Motions for next Session.—Mr. Adderley has given notice of the following motions for next Session:—To move resolutions to modify the Minutes of the Education Committee of Council which exclude small endowments from being reckoned with voluntary subscriptions; and to extend from *six* to *eight* years the limit of the age of scholars on whom a capitation grant may be made on general conditions without individual examination. We understand that the Committee have resolved not to examine children under *seven* years of age.

The Archbishop of Dublin on Education.—At the annual visitation of his United Dioceses, the Archbishop of Dublin made the following remarks respecting the National System of Education, of which his Grace has been a consistent advocate for twenty years:—"It is not, however, too late, even now, to effect something in the cause of popular education, though far less than was apparently within our reach several years ago. We may yet be able, as it were, to obtain one Sibylline book at the price which three would have cost some time back, and when we cannot do all that we could wish, we should yet strive to do all that is possible. The system, accordingly, pursued at Trinity College, Dublin, is, as is well known, to impart secular instruction to its members, of whatever persuasion; and religious instruction to all who will accept it, but to force it on none; and it seems but fair to proceed on the same principle in our dealings with our poorer countrymen. To force people to receive true religious instruction, is what we have no power to accomplish, and no right to attempt; but it is something gained if the mass of the people are enabled to read a copy of the Bible when put into their hands; and where but very few have this power, the circulation of useful books is, of course, of small avail. Something again is gained, if the children are taught to read from books at least not positively pernicious, and something more is also gained by the diffusion of useful secular instruction. It is, indeed, a truth often elaborately proved, and ostentatiously proclaimed, though it has never been disputed, that mere secular knowledge and mere intellectual culture do not constitute a complete and sufficient education, any more than the ploughing and manuring of a field are sufficient culture without sowing it with good seed, but these prepare the land for the reception of the seed. And even so it is with education; gross ignorance and want of exercise of the rational powers leave the mind as it were untilled, unfitted for the reception of truth, and prepared to adopt the most absurd superstitions."

Free Church (Scotland) Commission.—At the August meeting of this Commission, Mr. Nixon submitted a statement relative to the Education Scheme.

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In doing so, he mentioned that the present and past efficiency of the Normal schools was not likely to be impaired by the introduction of the new regulations of Government. With regard to the 600 schools throughout the country, while the Committee have no desire to keep up any of them when they are unnecessary, it would be difficult to mention half a dozen which it would not be an evil to extinguish. He regretted that the teachers were still paid only a proportion of the salaries, which at the outset the Committee declared it their duty and design to endeavour to secure to them, and that large numbers of ministers, elders, and deacons were doing little or nothing for the scheme. Of the 901 congregations and stations over the country, 213 do not contribute at all, and the majority of the congregations give less than £5 each per annum.

Parochial School-house (Scotland) Accommodation.—The parochial schoolmaster of Half-Morton, Dumfries, presented a petition, on the 4th August, to Quarter Sessions, under the Acts 43 Geo. III. cap. 54; and 24 and 25 Vict. cap. 107, complaining that the school-house and schoolmaster's dwelling-house were inadequate for the requirements of the parish, and incommodious and unsuitable. A great deal of evidence was led, after which the Court unanimously sustained the petition, and ordered the heritors to provide, without delay, suitable accommodation of the nature required, in terms of the Acts of Parliament.

Eton College.—The long vacation commenced on July 31st, and terminated on September 25th. Out of 72 candidates, 22 have been elected to the foundation. Three of the pupils have been elected for King's College, Cambridge. About 180 boys were to leave the school at the end of last half, and an equal number were expected to join at the re-assembly. The school election, 1863 :—Sixth form, 20. Upper division—Fifth form, 170; middle division, 119; lower division, 140; remove, 157; fourth form, 151; unplaced, 9,—766. Lower school :—Third form, 69; second form, 9; first form, 5,—83. Total, 849. Election in 1862, 837. Increase, 12.

Rugby.—Six scholarships at Rugby are at present vacant, each about 50 guineas a-year. Two are open to boys under 14, on October 20th, tenable for 5 years; two to boys under 15, tenable 4 years; and two to boys under 16, tenable 3 years. The examination will commence on October 14th.

Edinburgh High School Fees.—At the meeting of the Town-Council of Edinburgh, on August 18, a motion, for increasing the fees of the classical masters in the High School, and introducing other improvements, was rejected by 26 to 11.

The Old Mill Reformatory, Aberdeen.—Mr. Sydney Turner, Inspector of Reformatories, having lately found fault with some of the arrangements at Old Mill Reformatory—referring specially to the alleged inefficiency of the Governor, Mr. James Aiken—a good deal of correspondence has taken place on the subject, in which Mr. Turner threatens, if the existing arrangements are persisted in, to recommend Government to withdraw the grant, on which the institution almost entirely depends. The Governor has consequently, in the meantime, given in his resignation; and the directors have, by a small majority, accepted of the same, giving Mr. Aiken a certificate expressive of their goodwill and of their sense of his Christian worth, and he has left the institution. Two or three of the directors have resigned in consequence of the proceeding, feeling that, as they have uniformly expressed confidence in the Governor, Mr. Turner's censure was, in point of fact, a censure upon themselves, and holding that an appeal should have been taken to the Home Secretary.

Educational Bequests.—The late Mr. Alexander Edward has bequeathed £1000 to the Dundee Public Seminaries, or High School of Dundee; said sum to be invested by the directors, and the produce thereof to be applied in the education of the children of poor but respectable parents.

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James Forrest, Esq. of Meadowfield, has bequeathed £150 a-year for the education of 150 children, two-thirds of whom must be natives of Airdrie, the remaining third of Clarkston; and £110 a-year for five bursaries in the University of Glasgow.

The Misses Ettles, of Inverness, have founded an "Ettles Bursary," of £22 per annum, tenable for four years, in the University of Aberdeen; the competition to take place at the Inverness Academy. The same ladies have invested £500 to found a similar bursary in connexion with Elgin Academy.

Collegiate Evening Classes.—Professor Leone Levi, King's College, London, lately addressed a meeting in the Council Chambers, Edinburgh, on the success of collegiate evening classes in London, with a view of suggesting the adoption of similar classes in Scotland. The Lord Provost occupied the chair.

Professor Levi said that on his arrival in London in 1852, he had succeeded in obtaining the permission of the Council of King's College to give evening courses of lectures upon commerce and commercial law. The classes had been from the very first well attended. The success of this single class had encouraged the authorities of King's College to extend the operations in this direction, and the secretary afterwards proposed that a regular department should be formed for instruction in the evening in every branch of science. The Professor acquiesced, and all the branches of science were opened in the college for the reception of young men. The college was one of the largest in London. They had about 600 day students, and they had a school numbering 600 or 700, so that that made 1300 actually receiving their education there. They had a large staff of professors, lecturers, and teachers; they had a noble library, and halls and class-rooms in abundance; and all these were thrown open in the evening to the young men in the city of London. The trial had succeeded admirably. There were two sessions—a winter and a summer. The principal part, however, was the winter session. The classes were open to all, and the only condition was that the young men should bring a letter of introduction from some gentleman who was known, as a guarantee for their good conduct. The great advantage the King's College classes afforded over the previous evening classes for young men, or the Society of Arts' examination and other efforts in that direction, had been that the young men attending these classes could matriculate in the college, and could thereby become members of the King's College, London, and could thus be prepared to go forth for degrees. A man in this way could attend during the day to his occupation, and if he had a taste for study, he could advance two things at the same time; he could get his livelihood from his daily work, and at the same time prepare himself for a future career in some other profession.

A vote of thanks having been awarded to Professor Levi, the meeting closed.

Education Vote for Ireland.—Sir R. Peel, in moving the Irish Education vote, said, as the subject had been so much discussed, it was not necessary that he should detain the Committee with any lengthened observations, and he should confine himself to explanations of the increase and decrease in the several items, as compared with the vote of last year. With this view he went through all the details of the estimate, dwelling especially (with reference to a notice given by Mr. O'Reilly) upon the condition of the district model schools. Mr. O'Reilly called attention to the large expenditure on those schools, and, among other objections, urged that the children received into some of these schools were of a class that should not be educated at the public expense; that they were extravagantly costly, and that they were a step to a universal system of centralization of State schools. As a beginning of their gradual abolition, he moved the reduction of the vote

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by the sum proposed for the school at Enniscorthy, viz., £268. After a debate of considerable length, and an eloquent defence of the Irish educational system by the Attorney-General for Ireland, the Committee divided, when the amendment was negatived by 122 to 38.

The Lower House of Convocation and the Educational Minute.—The Rev. Henry Mackenzie presented a *gravamen*, very numerously signed by the members of the Lower House, against the recent Educational Minute, praying that it might be laid before the Upper House, with a humble request that their Lordships the Bishops will use their constitutional influence with Her Majesty's Government to procure the revocation or modification of the Minute in question.

The New Asylum for British Orphans at Slough.—On the 24th June this asylum was opened by the Prince of Wales. The building, which faces the railway station at Slough, is capable of holding 200 children. At the meeting, Mr. E. Mackenzie, of the firm of Peto, Brassey, and Co., presented a donation of £12,000.

Decimalisation of Weights and Measures.—The following reasons in favour the French metric system have been issued by the International Decimal Association.

1st, The uniformity in weights and measures, which it has always been the great object of the Legislature to establish, is defeated by the vast variety of weights and measures in use in every part of the country and in many branches of trade.

2d, The existence of so many weights and measures other than the imperial, proves that we do not at present possess a system adequate to the requirements of trade, and adapted to daily intercourse, and to the purposes of science.

3d, The metric weights and measures are universally admitted to fulfil the conditions of a sound and convenient system.

4th, This system has been adopted not only in France, but in Belgium, Holland, Spain, Italy, Portugal, Germany, Switzerland, and Greece, and is rapidly extending over other parts of Europe and in America.

5th, The increase of our trade with those countries which use the metric weights and measures, renders its adoption by ourselves a matter of great practical importance.

6th, The permissive use of metric weights and measures is highly expedient for the purpose of legalizing the transactions now carried on according to that system.

7th, The country has already expressed itself in favour of the decimal method of calculation, on which the metric system is based.

8th, The metric weights and measures admit of binary divisions.

9th, By decimalizing the weights and measures, we best pave the way for the decimalisation of our coinage.

10th, Extensive inquiries have proved that the introduction of the proposed system would secure an immense saving of time in education.

11th, The adoption of the metric system has been decidedly and unanimously recommended by a committee of the House of Commons, after most careful inquiry and discussion.

India.—We take the following from the *Overland Friend of India* :—"Calcutta has at last got its Municipal Act, and only the formal assent of the Viceroy is required to sanction its operation on the 1st of July next. No experiment in municipal government of so important a kind has ever been made in Asia. If successful, it will form a model not only to Madras, which keenly watches it, but to all similar communities even purely native.

"Thanks to the princely munificence of its native millionaires, Bombay will be the first Presidency to have a building worthy of the University.

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Meanwhile, Lord Elgin abstains from giving any reply to the proposals of the Calcutta University made more than a year ago. Cowasjee Jehangeer, who recently built a great hospital at Surat, now offers £10,000 towards building a University in Bombay, in honour of the Prince of Wales's marriage. A few months ago another Bombay gentleman established travelling fellowships in connexion with the University. All that Calcutta has to set against this is a scholarship of £3 a month, endowed in its Residency College, not by a Bengalee, but by the Rajpoot Maharajah of Jeypore."

III.—PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.—*College of Preceptors.*—At the half-yearly general meeting in July, the Rev. G. A. Jacob, D.D., the Dean, read his report, in which he said that the examination of pupils, both in London and in the country, had been conducted in a very satisfactory manner. The regulations of the College, he had every reason to believe, had been strictly observed. The number of pupils examined was 503; and a much larger proportion than usual had obtained certificates; of the 218 examined in London, 81 per cent., and of the 285 examined at their own schools, 83 per cent. had been successful. Nearly one-half of all the certificates obtained were those for the third class. He remarked that, in London schools, boys sometimes failed from taking up *too large a number of subjects*, which caused them to be weak in almost all of them, and consequently to run great risk of getting below the minimum in many. The Dean then read the names of those who had obtained prizes; and stated that twenty-one candidates had presented themselves at the teachers' examination. After the Council's report had been read, an excellent address was delivered by Dr. Kennedy, the President of the Council.

At the evening meeting on the 17th June, an admirable paper was read by Dr. Schaible, "On the Teaching of Modern Languages in Schools."

Educational Institute of Scotland.—The annual meeting was held on Saturday, September 19th. Mr. M'Master of Borgue, the President, in his retiring address, congratulated the members on the peace and prosperity of the Institute during the past year. He referred to the Revised Code, complimented the Scottish Inspectors, enlarged on the objects of the Institute, and the difficulties in the way of accomplishing them, and pointed out the existing defects in educational politics, and their remedies. Mr. Purves, of Musselburgh, was appointed President for the ensuing year. From the Report by the Convener of the Board of Examiners, it appeared that, during the past year, *one* candidate for the Institute's diploma had been examined, and had been successful.

The National Society.—At the fifty-second annual general meeting of this Society,—His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury in the chair,—it appeared from the report that the income of the Society from all sources had amounted to £11,100, being less than the receipts for the preceding year. The number of additional schools taken into union amounted to 189.

Burgh and Parochial Schoolmasters' (Scotland) Widows' Fund.—The fifty-seventh annual meeting was held on September 19th,—Dr. Miller, of Perth, the new preses, in the chair. The amount of the fund was stated to be £95,297, being an increase of £2588, 11s. 1d. on the previous year. The allowances to 218 widows during the year amounted to £3450; to orphan children, £171, 4s. 7d. The widows are arranged in five classes, according to their claims. Those in the first class receive £35 each per annum; those in the fifth, £7; the average is £21. In 1855 the arrears amounted to £1385; they are now only £797. It was remitted to the Standing Committee that, as it is expedient that more powers should be possessed for investing the funds, they prepare a bill with a view to accomplish this object, including in it any amendments upon the present Act which they may

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consider necessary, an abstract of the bill to be transmitted to each contributor before the 25th July next, and the matter to be brought up at the next annual meeting.

Free Church (Scotland) Teachers' Association.—At the annual meeting, on September 19th, an address was delivered by Mr. Kennedy, Moray House Training College, the retiring President. He quoted the testimony of Mr. Middleton, an Established Church Inspector, to the benefits conferred upon the country by the Free Church Education Scheme. After referring to the unsatisfactory position of the question of the tenure of office, he suggested the establishment of a fund for schoolmasters disabled by age or infirmity. He also advocated the issuing of a Royal Commission to inquire into the state of elementary education in Scotland. He referred to the effect of the Revised Code in reducing the number of pupil-teachers, and was of opinion that teachers would now aim at employing assistants in their stead. He thought teachers would find it profitable to open evening schools, and to institute science classes in connexion with the Science and Art Department. He concluded by condemning the provisions of the Revised Code, which required in the principal school-room eighty cubic feet for each child, and recommending that an effort should be made to alter the requirement, so as to make it apply to all the rooms in the school taken together. Mr. Lambie, Leith, was elected President for the ensuing year.

Social Science Association.—The forthcoming meeting of this Association in Edinburgh, on the 7th October, promises to be one of the most successful of its congresses. Lord Brougham, the President, will open the Congress with an inaugural address, and will also preside at a large working-men's meeting, to be held during the first week. The Presidents of the Departments will be—of the Jurisprudence Department, Lord Curriehill; Education, Mr. Nassau W. Senior; Punishment and Reformation, Lord Neaves; Public Health, Professor Christison; Social Economy, Sir John M'Neill.

The Society of Arts.—This Society has issued its programme of examinations for 1864:—

1. These examinations have been established for the benefit of members and students of the institutions in union with the Society of Arts. Such persons are commonly mechanics, artisans, labourers, clerks, tradesmen and farmers in a small way of business, apprentices, sons and daughters of tradesmen and farmers, assistants in shops, and others, of various occupations, who are not graduates, undergraduates, or students of a university, nor following, nor intending to follow, a learned profession, nor enjoying, nor having enjoyed, a liberal education. To all such members and students, and persons of like condition, male and female, the examinations, certificates, and prizes described in this programme, are open on the conditions stated herein.

Persons, also, of a higher grade in society, may be examined and receive certificates, but cannot compete for prizes. Persons who are, or have been, professional teachers or pupil teachers, may be examined and receive certificates, but cannot enter into the general competition for prizes.

The examinations are twofold:—

(1.) The previous examinations by the Local Boards, for persons of any age not under 12. (2.) The final examination by the Central Board, under supervision of the Local Boards, for persons of any age not under 16.

2. The following is the Central Committee's scheme of elementary examinations for 1864:—

JUNIOR.	SENIOR.
1. Every candidate must be examined in the first four rules of Arithmetic, simple and compound.	1. Every candidate must be examined in Arithmetic, including the Rule of Three, Decimal and Vulgar Fractions.

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Male candidates must be examined in any *two*, and females in any *one*, of the three following subjects :—

A. A general knowledge of the Gospel History.

B. The rudiments of English History.

C. The rudiments of the Geography of England.

2. Female candidates must also be examined in plain needlework.

3. Fair writing and spelling, with good reading of a simple narrative, will be required of every candidate.

4. A satisfactory examination will entitle the candidate to a certificate.

Male candidates must be examined in any *two*, and females in any *one*, of the three following subjects :—

A. The facts of St. Luke's Gospel and the Acts of the Apostles.

B. English History, from the accession of Henry VII. to the accession of James the First, with the rudiments of the History from the Conquest.

C. Geography of the British Isles.

2. Every female candidate must also show proficiency in needlework.

3. All candidates will be required to exhibit in their papers a fairly good handwriting, spelling, and knowledge of grammar.

4. A satisfactory examination will entitle the candidate to a certificate.

Metropolitan Association for Promoting the Education of Adults.—The Committee of this Association have issued a notice of the Examinations in Religious Knowledge for 1864, to be held on May 10th. Examiner—Rev. A. Blomfield, M.A. Every candidate must be at least twelve years of age, and must have previously received from this Association, or from a Local Board connected therewith, or with the Society of Arts, a certificate or pass for proficiency in Elementary Knowledge. Syllabus, lower grade :—1. Order of Morning and Evening Prayer and the Church Catechism. 2. The Gospel of St. Luke. 3. The First Book of Kings. Higher grade :—1. Order of Morning and Evening Prayer and the Church Catechism. 2. The Office for Holy Communion. 3. The Gospel of St. Luke. 4. The First Book of Kings. Prizes are also offered to the most successful candidates.

West Cornwall Teachers' Association.—At a meeting of the West Cornwall Teachers' Association, held at Truro, June 27th, the following resolutions on the subject of "Night-schools" were unanimously adopted :—1. That as a great number of the children of the working classes leave our day-schools at such an early age that their education is necessarily very imperfect even in the essential branches of reading, writing, and arithmetic, it is highly important that night-schools should be established to complete the work of the day-schools. 2. That it is in the power of employers to contribute mainly towards the success of such schools by making the attendance of the uneducated a *sine qud non* to their obtaining employment. 3. That to prevent the night-school from becoming a temptation to earlier removal from the day-school, the age of admittance to the former must not be placed too low. 4. That it is of consequence that these schools be within easy distance of the homes of the scholars ; be taught by a sufficient staff of teachers ; be under the superintendence of competent persons, and under similar general management to that of the day-schools."

Lichfield Diocesan Board.—From the twenty-fourth Annual Report of this Board, we learn that the Training Institution for Masters at Lichfield, which was opened in 1839, *has been closed.*

Chichester Diocesan Association.—At the annual meeting of this Association, held at Cuckfield, on the 25th August, the Lord Bishop made the following statement respecting the Training College (Bishop Otter's) at Chichester :—"The committee had long been engaged in considering what the prospects of the institution were, and it was clear that there were not sufficient subscriptions to maintain it ; and it was believed that at Christmas, what with the present arrears and other expenditure which would become necessary, the charge on it would amount to not less than £1000."

York and Ripon Diocesan Training College.—At the last quarterly meeting

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of the Board of Management, the effect of the new Code upon Normal schools was deliberately considered. It was resolved that, after Christmas next, the number of students admitted into the male college should be restricted; and that each accepted candidate should pay £10 during his first year of residence, and receive the second year's training gratuitously. The sum of £8 was fixed as the cost to each female pupil for the first year at Ripon. In consideration of the diminished number of students, and the limited extent of the syllabus of instruction for the future, it was resolved that one assistant master should be substituted for the two Government lecturers; and that the Principal be authorized to carry out the resolution in accordance with instructions received by him from the Board.

Derby and Derbyshire.—A general meeting of the members of this Association washeld on June 6th, when the Rev. R. Hitchman, curate of St. Peter's, Derby, delivered a lecture "On the History of the United Church of England and Ireland;" and Mr. White, St. Paul's School, Derby, read a paper on "The Associated Body." The Minute of 19th May, 1863, was read to the meeting, and the following resolution was unanimously adopted:—"That the secretary of this Association be instructed to write to C. W. Giles-Puller, Esq., M.P., requesting him to bring under the notice of the House of Commons the Minute of the Committee of Council on Education, dated 19th May, 1863, with a view to the removal of the restrictions therein placed on the appointment of schoolmasters to the office of Inspectors' Assistants."

IV.—The British Association for the Advancement of Science.—The thirty-third annual meeting of this Association was opened at the New Town Hall, Newcastle-on-Tyne, on Wednesday, August 26th. The chair was taken by the President, Professor Willis, who, after a brief speech, resigned it to Sir William Armstrong, C.B., LL.D., the President elected for the ensuing year.

The President's Address.—Sir William Armstrong, in his address, dilated at some length on the mechanical forces of nature, and the recent discoveries of science in that direction. The locality led him to describe the progress made in our railway system since 1838; the history of railroads naturally led to coal and its consumption, and he stated that coal for steam purposes was used in so reckless and wasteful a manner, that, if not checked, it would exhaust the coal in the Newcastle district in about 200 years. After some remarks on the temperature of the earth, he described the results of the spectrum experiments of Bunsen and Kerchhoff, and Nasmyth's remarkable discovery, "that the bright surface of the sun is composed of an aggregation of apparently solid forms, shaped like willow-leaves or some well-known forms of Diatomaceæ, and interlacing one another in every direction." He then showed how intimately the science of gunnery was connected with the dynamical theory of heat; spoke of the practical value of meteorological observations; advocated the decimal system of weights and measures; referred to the postage and telegraph systems, remarking, however, that "while so much facility is given to mental communication by new measures and new inventions, the fundamental art of expressing thought by written symbols remains as imperfect now as it has been for centuries past. It seems strange that, while we actually possess a system of shorthand by which words can be recorded as rapidly as they can be spoken, we should persist in writing a slow and laborious longhand. It is intelligible that grown-up persons, who have acquired the present conventional art of writing, should be reluctant to incur the labour of mastering a better system; but there can be no reason why the rising generation should not be instructed in a method of writing more in accordance with the activity of mind which now prevails. Even without going so far as to adopt for ordinary use a

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complete system of stenography, which it is not easy to acquire, we might greatly abridge the time and labour of writing by the recognition of a few simple signs to express the syllables which are of most frequent occurrence in our language. Our words are in a great measure made up of such syllables as *com*, *con*, *tion*, *ing*, *able*, *ain*, *ent*, *est*, *ance*, etc. These we are now obliged to write out over and over again, as if time and labour expended in what may be termed visual speech, were of no importance. Neither has our written character the advantage of distinctness to recommend it; it is only necessary to write such a word as 'minimum' or 'ammunition,' to become aware of the want of sufficient difference between the letters we employ." After briefly noticing the discovery of the source of the Nile, the Darwinian theory of organic life, and the antiquity of man, he concluded thus: "The tendency of progress is to quicken progress, because every acquisition in science is so much vantage ground for fresh attainment. We may expect, therefore, to increase our speed as we struggle forward; but however high we climb in the pursuit of knowledge, we shall still see heights above us, and the more we extend our view, the more conscious we shall be of the immensity which lies beyond."

1. *In Section* A (*Mathematical and Physical Science*), the introductory address was delivered by W. J. Macquorin Rankine, C.E., F.R.S., Professor of Engineering in the University of Glasgow, the President.

2. *In Section* B (*Chemical Science*), the President, Professor Williamson, delivered an address on "The Progress of Chemistry and the Chemical Arts."

3. *In Section* C (*Geology*), Professor Warrington Smyth, the President, delivered an address "On the Carboniferous System," which is commonly divided, for convenience sake, into three principal divisions, viz., the carboniferous limestone, the millstone grit, and the coal measures. In describing the Newcastle coal-field, which extends from the river Coquet on the north to near the Tees on the south, a distance of fifty miles, he said:—"The greatest thickness attained by this formation is probably not more than 2000 feet; but it would be vain for me, within a limited time, to offer sure details of the strata. Let it suffice to say, that in this thickness there exist, associated with shales of many varieties, and with fine-grained sandstones, some 57 beds of coals, from an inch thick upwards, comprising in all 75 feet of coal; but that what are considered the workable seams are 12 in number, giving an aggregate of about 50 feet of coal.

4. *In Section* D (*Zoology and Botany*) the President, Professor Balfour, in alluding to the benefits conferred on science and its students by the meetings of the British Association, said, that there was a mutual bearing of all the natural sciences on each other, and the student of nature must take a comprehensive grasp of all. One of the features of the Association specially deserving of notice was the reports in different departments of science, which had been the means of enabling many a deserving young naturalist to advance science, and lay the foundation of future fame and promotion. The Rev. H. B. Tristram read a paper in this section, "On some Elucidations of the Geological History of North Africa, supplied by its Lacustrine Fauna." The observations on the geology of North Africa went to show that, down to a recent period of the tertiary epoch, a considerable portion of that country formed the bed of the ocean, and thus it was that the traces of inhabitants were found closely allied to the inhabitants of the coast of Guinea on the one side, and of the Upper Nile and the Ganges on the other.

Sub-Section D (*Physiology*), Professor Rolleston, the President, passed in review those writers who had written works to which reference was likely to be made in the section, and made some observations on the general, and on the educational, value of the study of physiology.

5. *In Section* E (*Geography and Ethnology*), Sir Roderick Murchison, Presi-

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dent, reviewed the leading geographical results in British Geography since the last meeting of the Association at Newcastle; mentioned the expeditions in Australia by the brothers Gregory, by Burke, Willis, M'Douall Stuart, and M'Kinlay; and the discovery of the sources of the Nile by Captains Speke and Grant. The discovery of the sources of the Nile he declared to be the most remarkable geographical feat which has been performed in our time, and one which it has been the ambition of other nations to accomplish during all ages. Carefully tracing the progress of the two travellers, he led his hearers from the African coast, near Zanzibar, to the central, lofty plateau-land that forms in that region the water-shed between North and South Africa, and thence to the lake Nyanza, the great reservoir out of which, at its northern end, the waters of the White Nile were seen to flow. Thence, Sir Roderick said, the travellers traced the mighty stream northward into Egypt, and demonstrated that whilst the White Nile, which they followed, is the Great Nile, the so-called Blue River, joining the parent stream at Khartum on the frontiers of Egypt, is, like the Albara and other waters, a mere tributary.

6. *In Section* F (*Economic Science and Statistics*) the President, W. Tite, M.P., in his address, directed attention to the condition of the currency system in America; to the steps that had been taken during the last Session of Parliament respecting the Metrical System of Weights and Measures; and in conclusion dwelt on the beneficial effects of the Social Science Association, and the cordiality existing between it and the British Association.

7. *In Section* G (*Mechanical Science*) the President, Rev. Robert Willis, in a few preliminary remarks, confined himself to the subjects of the papers to be read in the section.

On Wednesday, 2d September, at the concluding general meeting, the secretary stated "that the number of persons belonging to the Association at this moment was 3356, from whom had been received £3600. The sum of £1715 had been devoted to grants for scientific purposes."

Sir Charles Lyell has been elected President of the British Association for 1864; and Bath has been chosen as the place of meeting.

V.—Appointments.—Rev. T. E. Brown:—Second Master of Clifton College.

Arthur Cayley, Esq., F.R.S., F.S.A., late Fellow of Trin. Coll. Cantab.:—Sadlerian Professor of Pure Mathematics in the University of Cambridge.

T. Cradock, B.A.:—Professor of English Language, Literature, and History, Queen's College, Liverpool.

Rev. C. D. Crossman:—Second Master, Godolphin School, Hammersmith.

Robert Dick, M.A.:—Rector of Greenock Academy.

T. C. Donkin, late Scholar of Worcester College, Oxford:—Professor of Greek and Latin, Queen's College, Liverpool.

Henry R. Dow:—Rector of Musselburgh Grammar School.

P. D. Handyside, M.D., F.R.S., F.R.C.S.:—Lecturer on Anatomy in the Medical School, Edinburgh.

T. Hoare, M.A., late Scholar of St. John's College, Cambridge:—Mathematical and Second Classical Master, St. John's Foundation School for Sons of the Clergy, London.

Rev. J. H. Lamb, Fellow of Christ's Church, Cantab.:—Second Master of Candone School, Hants.

William M'Cready, Esq., one of the "Chiefs of Inspection," Ireland:—Joint-Secretary of the Board of Education.

Rev. F. A. Pentreath:—Head-Master, Ashton Classical and Commercial School.

David Pryde, M.A.:—Lecturer on the Structure of the English Language in the School of Arts, Edinburgh.

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John Cyprian Rust, of Pemb. Coll., Cantab. :—Assistant Master of Doncaster Grammar School.

Rev. E. Sanderson :—Second Master, Grammar School, Weymouth.

G. Sedgwick, B.A., of Caius College, Cambridge :—Third Master of St. John's Foundation School, London.

J. R. Seeley, M.A., Fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge :—Professor of Latin, University College, London.

W. Y. Sellar, M.A. :—Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh.

Rev. A. Smith :—Head-Master, Grammar School, Sutton Coldfield.

Rev. T. H. Stokoe :—Head-Master of Richmond School, Yorkshire.

Dr. John Struthers, F.R.C.S., Lecturer on Anatomy, Surgeons' Hall, Edinburgh :—Professor of Anatomy, University of Aberdeen.

Rev. J. Twentyman, Fellow of Christ's College, Cantab. :—one of the Masters of Cheltenham College.

Horace Waddington, Esq., M.A., of University College, Oxford :—one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

Rev. R. C. Whiting, M.A., Fellow of Trin. Coll. Cantab. :—Subwarden of Radley College.

XIV. EDUCATION AT HOME AND ABROAD.

HOME.

The interval which has passed since the issue of our last number has been one of quiescence in the field of education, as well as in most other public departments. To this condition the season itself has contributed. Parliament has been prorogued; the "din of the forum," save where the judges of assize have been wheeling their itinerant course, has been for the most part suspended; the great world of rank and fashion has migrated from town to country-houses, grouse-moors, and "foreign strands;" the little world of schoolmasters and schoolboys has been keeping holiday, and seeking repose and refreshment from the various sources which minister relief to well-worked minds. Hence, during the last quarter, educational matters have been for the most part at a stand-still; no fresh *moves* have been made, nor have any very important demonstrations taken place.

It is probable, however, that Mr. Lowe has not heard the last of suppressed Inspectors' Reports. Among the latest Parliamentary echoes might be caught the sound of Lord Robert Cecil's voice announcing his intention, early next session, to move a resolution condemnatory of Mr. Lowe's severe and summary method of upholding the discipline of the Council Office. Whether the Right Honourable gentleman will be condemned by a vote of the House of Commons is doubtful; but it is quite certain that he has incurred the censure of public opinion outside of the House. His policy is felt to be a trifle too arbitrary, while it is also seen not to be altogether impartial; for he *has* accepted and published reports in which educational systems and

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modes of administration are discussed in a direction favourable to his own measures. But Mr. Lowe is probably not much disquieted by Lord Robert's challenge. He will defend himself, when the question is re-opened, with considerable cleverness and unflinching courage; for whatever may be thought of his schemes, and of the temper and tact with which he has introduced and imposed them, everybody must do homage to his determination, gallantry, and readiness of resource in vindicating himself. He has manifested, indeed, exactly those qualities which furnish the best reason with most people for sympathizing with the Southern Confederacy. There is another recent Minute which is also destined to rise up next year, if not to push the Vice-President from his stool, yet at least to give him a little additional trouble and discomfort while he sits on it. We refer to that issued on the 19th of May, with respect to endowed schools. After all, this hits harder than the suppression of a few pages of letter-press. It has already fluttered more than one educational dovecot. There are a good many village schools to which endowments of trifling amount are attached, and which are situated in places where it is impossible to obtain much local assistance towards the support of the school. The endowment, in some degree, supplies the place of subscriptions gathered in more fortunate neighbourhoods, and enables the managers to keep the school open, and to make it fairly efficient. To schools of this class it is urged that the new Minute will be a heavy blow and great discouragement. It will practically cut them off from all share in the public grant, and "leave them out in the cold," while neighbouring schools, upheld by rich and liberal proprietors, will be basking in the warm sunshine of State patronage. There is reason in the complaint; and though it may be argued that the possession of an endowment relieves the pockets of existing supporters, and gives the school a start, yet it should be remembered that the difference of circumstances and position between one school and another makes a very important difference in the real value and advantage of such endowments. It is to be hoped that, if Mr. Adderley brings forward the subject, it will be properly discussed in all its bearings, and due consideration given to the condition and necessities of individual schools. A certain amount of flexibility in the administration of such a Minute as that of May 19, is quite possible, and would be very reasonable. The severely simple policy of Procrustes, however economical of time and trouble, is open to a good deal of criticism, and is apt to elicit cries of agony and impatience from those subjected to it.

The Revised Code is now in full operation, and, so far, the results are not turning out so bad as some people expected. Most of the schools hitherto examined have secured a fair amount of public money, and only a small percentage of the children have been rejected for inability to do the amount of reading, writing, and arithmetic required in their sections. This result has already been appealed to as satisfactorily disproving the charge that the elementary subjects were very imperfectly taught in national and common schools. The teachers certainly have a right to catch at this fact in self-vindication, but we

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are bound to say that during the last year an astonishing stimulus has been given to the due cultivation of the essential branches of instruction. Still the new Code is probably not a whit more popular than it was, and there are, it must be admitted, earnest and thoughtful friends of national education who look forward sadly and despondingly to its future.

The Training Schools will now very shortly discover what are to be the first effects of the Minute recently passed with reference to them. The issue will be tested in connexion with the supply of incoming students for 1864.

Nearly all the Provincial and Diocesan Colleges have determined to charge a small fee during the first year's residence, and to make the second year's training gratuitous in the case of all who bind themselves to remain two years, and afterwards to enter upon the charge of a school under Government inspection. It remains then to see whether candidates will be forthcoming who will be willing to contribute something towards the cost of their own training. There certainly ought to be no great difficulty in this matter; and if the profession of a teacher—as compared with other callings of a similar social grade—be worth following, there will be no difficulty. It really is not much to expect that young persons should pay some £10 towards providing themselves with an education which costs altogether not much less than £100, and is, in a mere commercial sense, worth all the money. The munificence of the Committee of Council in its bestowal of Queen's Scholarships, and in its largesses of pocket-money, has perhaps operated rather unhealthily to discourage self-help, and has generated amongst pupil-teachers and their friends an indisposition to make any sacrifice, and a feeling that it is cruel to require it. There will therefore be a critical period to tide over, but sounder notions will prevail at last.

Meantime the great Metropolitan Training Institutions refuse to co-operate with other colleges in imposing any charge on their pupils for next year at all events. Battersea and St. Mark's especially stand aloof, strong in the financial confidence produced by the consciousness that the funds of the National Society are at their service. On these funds, it must be conceded, the colleges in question draw very liberally. St. Mark's is in this respect particularly distinguished. Whether the provincial supporters of the National Society, who are also interested in diocesan colleges, will be content to see, without protest, so large a portion of the Society's funds allotted for the support of what must be called, in relation to diocesan colleges, rival institutions, is a matter about which we feel a little anxious. We can at all events, from what we know of affairs, promise the National Society the loss of some of its supporters.

During the last few months a re-distribution of Inspectors' districts has taken place; the office of Assistant-Inspector has been abolished, and that of Inspector's Assistant created instead of it.

Each Inspector has now his own definite limit of work and action; and as the orbits of two or three will not again intersect and cross one

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another as they have been wont to do, where a chief and two subordinates had charge of a wide district, the economists of the Council Office will be able to chronicle a small saving in the expenditure for travelling. How the new Assistantships will answer remains to be seen.

Divers men divers things say, as old Chaucer has it; but in the meantime schoolmasters seem anxious to avail themselves of the new opening, for candidates are numerous. As to the appointments, they will prove but a handful for the hungry multitude to scramble for.

It is a time-honoured custom that the daily papers should, during the long vacation and the Parliamentary recess, ventilate a few of the recognised standard social questions of the age.

In accordance with this wholesome usage, several of the leading journals have had a turn at the important question of middle-class education. Nothing new perhaps has been elicited, but they sensibly and usefully remind us of our national shortcomings in this respect, and faithfully assure the middle classes of this country, that the education which the majority of them provide for their children is generally of the most worthless description.

It is a difficult problem to solve—this one of middle-class education. The difficulty lies in this, that while a cheap boarding-school can hardly be a good one, the class of persons in question are unwilling, and perhaps in many cases unable, to avail themselves of a boarding-school that is not cheap.

In the higher walks of education one only falls in at this season with odds and ends of intelligence and incident. It may be that a scheme for a new proprietary college makes its appearance, or that Paterfamilias, stirred up by the representations of his heir-apparent, at home for his holidays, writes impetuously to the *Times* to complain of the way in which boys are fed at the public schools, and to desiderate the "pale ale" of other days that has degenerated into undrinkable swipes. Such, indeed, just now is the stillness of the educational atmosphere, that the falling of these little leaves, and the patter of these little drops, are heard and attract attention.

The Universities are in a state of "majestic repose;" but the irrepressible question of subscription only bides its time. Once stirred, once accepted as a fair and honest gage of battle between the two parties who are interested, this question will not again be allowed to fall for any length of time into abeyance. On its decision depends the future as well of the Universities as of the Church. Those who insist on maintaining inviolate all existing tests and restraints, may possibly succeed in monopolizing for party what was meant for mankind; but it is much more likely that they will achieve a short-lived triumph, and thus ultimately purchase to themselves the bad eminence of indirectly bringing about something very like an academical revolution.

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GERMANY.

Professor R. Wagner of Würzburg had the task of reporting upon Class XXIX.—the Educational Exhibition—in the London Exhibition of 1862, in a general official report presented to the *Zollverein*. After giving a brief account of English deficiencies, backed by the statistics of the Royal Commission's Blue-book, he concludes:—

"Thus we see how very far the English school system is behind the German. Not only in other departments, but also in that of education, the *Nolumus leges Angliæ mutari* is the ruling maxim still. The English school still wears its old-fashioned character, as the Judges in court still wear their gown and wig. Surely an inspection of what other countries, and especially their German kinsmen, have to show under Class 29, must at once humble and stimulate British pride, and lead the English to useful reflection upon the narrow limits in which their educational system has hitherto been bound."

Really, the ignorant conceit of the German professor on this subject is a disgrace to an official report. His self-sufficient bray is even more ludicrous in the bombastic abstractions of his stilted Teutonic, which we have dropt in our translation. They continue to repeat the traditional self-glorification of their school system, which might be just thirty years ago, but is no longer so. We do not think that these national contrasts are worth anything. Further, we are quite conscious how much remains to be done in this country, how much we have to learn from others, how very far behind what it might be our school system is, from the highest to the lowest. But we also know perfectly well the great deficiencies of the German system, and how very far it is from doing what it pretends to do, and is perpetually boasting that it does do. We could easily show up the hollowness and unsoundness of the boasted Prussian system—the niggard economy of a government which persists in maintaining a military force far beyond its means, and starves its schoolmasters—the red-tapism which undermines the efficiency of its administration—the espionage of opinion carried on by the clergy—and the utter inadequacy of all the *matériel* of the parish schools. We could do this, were international retort and recrimination the object of these notes. But it is not. We look at our neighbours that we may learn from them, not that we may sneer at their shortcomings. That we may learn *something* from Germany, we have never ceased to proclaim. Our institution of this series of Foreign Notes is evidence sufficient of our desire to learn. More than this: we believe that refinement of feeling, moral sensibility, and a perception of the graces and amenities of social life, pervade German manners much more extensively than is the case in Great Britain, north or south; and that this is an effect partly of their more thoroughly organized school system. But the self-sufficiency of the German school official goes far beyond this. With Chinese immobility, he continues to think his own schools unique in Europe. While he remains exactly where he was in 1840, or has rather retrograded, it is precisely in those twenty years that this country has made its most

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rapid strides in the attempt to bring its national schools up to the level of the requirements of its population.

The fourteenth anniversary meeting of the German Teachers' Association was held at Mannheim on the 26th, 27th, 28th of May. The number of members present exceeded all precedent. It is supposed to have approached 8000; but the precise figures cannot be given, as the pressure of the crowd completely overwhelmed the bureau of reception, which was too feebly organized. There was no public building in Mannheim capable of containing such an assembly. Trinity Church, which had been fitted up for the purpose, was crammed to overflow, and the necessity of standing during the proceedings prevented proper attention being given to the subjects of debate. The whole affair seems to have been continually on the point of collapsing into a mob; and might have done so, had it not been for the presiding skill and tact of Theodore Hoffmann of Hamburgh. Every German and Swiss country was represented in the meeting; though, as far as we can judge from the names, there was a conspicuous absence of Prussian schoolmasters. Whether the Government had actually vetoed their attendance, or they knew that their going would be little liked, we are unable to say. Even Austria contributed a quota, besides France, Holland, Switzerland, and one (a schoolmistress) from St. Petersburg. It is to be regretted that Great Britain had not a single representative. The themes discussed were the usual ones in the ordinary teachers' conferences:—"The introduction of natural history into the course of the Training-Colleges," by Director Lüben of Bremen: the Director, who is one of the most skilful teachers in Germany, pleaded *for* it in a telling address full of the richest experience: "On Drill in Schools," by Professor Schröder; "Thinking *versus* Memory," by Dr. Riecke; "How Schools can cherish Love of our Country," by Dr. K. Schmidt, Member of the School Council of Gotha,—were the principal matters brought forward. All the great and stirring educational questions of our day, nay, even details of administration and organization of a school system, are necessarily excluded from these debates. A German schoolmaster or school-councillor can have no opinion on such points, these being all undertaken and done for him by his government. These meetings cannot travel beyond matters of pedagogic science, as the Germans call it, *i.e.*, methods of teaching in schools.

The numbers of this gathering, too unwieldy for discussion, promoted a general enthusiasm and stirring sympathy, more useful than any discussion. No doubt, many a poor schoolmaster, broken down by the dull routine of overwork and insufficient pay, returned to his desk fresher and more cheerful for the singing and shouting, the cheers and the groans, and the free collision with men of other states, in those three days. His evening at the famous "Lion Cellar" did him probably as much good as the debate of the morning. Besides the meeting, there was an exhibition of educational objects in the "Aula," which seems to have been amply stocked, chiefly by the exertions of

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the publisher, Segnitz. The reception they received from the local authorities and the city of Mannheim, appears to have been highly gratifying. The streets were decked with banners, fireworks were exhibited, and the most general hospitality prevailed. It is needless to say that the gathering had the countenance of the Baden government, without which it would not have been held. The Grand Duke, indeed, evinced his approbation in the most marked way, attending personally at one of the meetings, where his reception was enthusiastic, and going over the collection in the "Aula" with great interest. The place designated for next year's meeting was either Leipsic or Zittau (in Lusatia); it does not appear to have been finally settled which. We should like to think that this country was to be represented there.

FRANCE.

PARIS, *Sept. 21st*, 1863.—Three months ago the system of Public Instruction established by M. Falloux was in full force here. But a reform of it was then expected. M. Rouland had promised to modify it, and the Council of Public Instruction was to assemble a few weeks later for the purpose of discussing this Minister's projected changes, more particularly those relating to special classes in the different French Lycées. Little was, however, hoped from this body in the shape of a progressive measure. Its most liberal members, being very elderly, are more conservative than otherwise. The most that was expected from them was an attempt to return to M. Guizot's system. This certainly would have been an immense improvement on M. Falloux's programme, and the programmes forced by Imperial decrees on the rectors between 1852 and 1858. Metaphysics, moral philosophy, and modern history were proscribed by Louis Philippe's ministers, and forbidden by those of the Prince-President and Emperor. But the ancient university course was unequal to the needs of a day like the present, when the whole tendency of mankind is to make practicable the democratic principles proclaimed in 1789, by changing the material or economic condition of the world. It was at this juncture that the educated portion of the French people heard of the dismissal of M. Rouland, and the appointment in his stead of M. Duruy. This event was all the more agreeable to the Parisians, because it was totally unexpected. The person thus exalted was neither known as a courtier, nor as a politician, nor a protégé of any bishop. But it was known that he had been for nearly thirty years a teacher, as such acquired the esteem of his pupils and superiors in the College Rollin, and subsequently published an ancient history, which was, on its appearance, adopted for the use of the junior classes in the Lycées. The Emperor first heard of him as one who could lend him valuable assistance in the compilation of the *Life of Cæsar*. He was on this account brought in frequent contact with Napoleon, who, being greatly struck with his moderation and the soundness of his views, thought, when a change of policy was rendered necessary by the late Paris elections, he could not fail to conciliate the liberal party by making him Minister of Public Instruction.

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To the honour of M. Duruy be it said, that, although a simple inspector, he refused to accept this high office unless he were in good faith authorized to change the educational code of M. Falloux. He had not been many days in power when the decree was issued by virtue of which moral philosophy is again studied in the different branches of the university. The clergy were somewhat irritated thereby. But this irritation was increased when, at the *Concours Général* of the Sorbonne, the Minister of Public Instruction said: "Our youths know all about Rome, Athens, the Feudal System, and the Œil de Bœuf of Versailles. But they know nothing of the society in which they live. They are expected to become its active members, yet they are kept in ignorance of its organization, its necessities, its tendencies, and the spirit of justice which should animate it. The best are by their studies contemporaries of Pericles, Augustus, or Louis XIV. But none are contemporaries of Napoleon III. Hence such ignorance of the things in the midst of which we pass our lives. Hence our numerous errors and self-deceptions, which must continue so long as we are neither of our age nor of our country. We have, gentlemen, a classical education, which is a great benefit. But we have not a national one, which is an incalculable evil." Such marked emphasis was laid on the word "national," that the partisans of M. Falloux's system assumed it to be the synonym of "anti-clerical." They furthermore paid themselves the bad compliment of assuming that, because M. Duruy pointedly remarked, "Art and Science are to-day the life of Prosperity," he aimed a blow at the schools taught by the religious orders, the different members of which are at liberty to direct an educational establishment, and without showing any other certificate of competency than a letter of obedience from his or her superior. The cry of impiety and free-thinking has therefore been raised against M. Duruy, and with what reason will best be gathered from the following paragraphs of his speech:—

"You are the grand army of peace. Your work is to make war without ceasing against ignorance and idleness; against the vices of the heart no less than against the defects of the understanding. Whilst with one hand you attack the enemy, with another scatter in the widely-opened trenches the good seed which must, thus sown, yield a rich harvest. Instruction and education are synonymous terms. Goodness comes from wisdom, wisdom from knowledge; but knowledge by itself is fruitless, for great thoughts are ever the result of a noble heart. There is little need to address you in this strain. But there are in the provinces younger masters, and less experienced, who listen to us. To these I will say: Place professional probity above talent, cleverness, and erudition; be assiduous in your efforts to train the individual pupil as well as to teach your class, so as to keep alive those delicacies of thought and sentiment which in public schools run the risk of being smothered. See, above all things, that the memory feed the mind with that which it has received; and, to succeed in your task, impart much by constantly imparting a little. A child's understanding is not like a granary that can be hastily stuffed from floor to roof. It is rather like a soil whence a skilful and conscientious husbandman can make refreshing springs gush forth. You must not, gentlemen, allow the pupil to confine himself to some corner of the studies which the university appoints. When I occupied such a place as each of you now occupies, I was never satisfied if my best pupil did not win a prize in every branch. . . . Forget not that unity of intellect is the perfection of intellect. You can never divide and subdivide the mind. It does not follow that, if sub-

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division of labour succeeds in the factory, it must succeed in the school. There, to produce speedily and cheaply, the workman strives to exercise some particular organ, and cares not if the others fall into a state of atrophy. Here, to effect any end worth effecting, the mind must be developed in all its parts. It is only on this condition that either power or durability can be secured. And the pupil thus developed is sure to succeed best at any profession to which he may devote himself. . . . And now I must give some advice to your pupils, who often hear that they are retained too long a time at the Lycée, and that it is possible for men to learn in three years what they are obliged to remain at during seven. For my part, I have found men so prompt as to propose that I should deprive you of your professor of history, and philosophy, and geometry, and physics, unless during a period of six months. But before such an abridgment of your studies could be of profit, it would be necessary to change radically the constitution of your minds. You live in a day when everything rushes speedily in the wake of the telegraph and steam-engine. It is easy to understand why we, your elders, should be hurried, who are near the top of the hill, which we again can never clamber. But there is no need for you to hasten after us. When we have succeeded in making your lives longer than the lives of those who went before you, it is worse than useless to make the period of education shorter. Your best years are those which you pass in company with the great orators and poets and philosophers: these enchanters of the soul who, upon the hills of knowledge, waft you purer air, and shed you brighter light than can easily be found elsewhere. . . . Is it not in the school that each of you prepares for life? Such as you issue from it, such will be your end. Cultivate therefore those qualities which the light of this age renders indispensable to the man who would really succeed. Be truthful, be honourable, and be patriotic; for honour, truth, and patriotism are each not less necessary than knowledge; and remember, that Will gives strength to succeed, as perseverance gave to Newton genius."

The Minister of Public Instruction has fulfilled the greater part of the promises which, on the 10th August, he made at the Sorbonne. "Arid Metaphysics" were excluded from every school in 1852, but they have been restored to the rank they were allowed previous to this period. In 1863 divers members of the Council of Public Instruction, at the last meeting of this body, objected to their use. One who is more of a poet than a philosopher, opposed them on the ground that they are "like the tops of snow-clad hills, where no vegetation can endure the chilling atmosphere." He might have been reminded that the Rhone, which fertilizes the south of France, and the Ganges, which waters the parched plains of Bengal, have their sources in such mountains. Subsequently a decree was promulgated, by virtue of which the *bifurcation* of studies commences in the third instead of the fourth classes of the Lycées. Next year, there is reason to hope that it will commence with the second class, and finally be suppressed in these establishments. The pupils in the secondary schools of France will thus obtain a more enlarged education than they have hitherto received. They will, too, be taught simultaneously classics and science, including pure mathematics, physics, mechanics, and drawing. A year ago they had, on leaving the fifth class, to choose between a purely scientific or a purely classical and literary education. The falsity of this system is so evident, that one wonders how a talented people like the French could have ever been brought to tolerate it. When the mind was least expanded, it was forced to embrace a wider range of studies than when most eager to strengthen the judgment, feed the imagination, and wander into fields of knowledge, that heretofore it had rather a dislike than an inclination to explore.

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M. Duruy is also preparing a measure which will place primary instruction upon a much wider basis than it is at present. He wishes to carry out Bonaparte's idea, of making the communal school a preparatory one for the Lycée, so as to enable the workman's son to obtain the highest honours which the State can bestow, if he be intelligent and industrious. It is generally believed that adjacent to each Lycée a professional school will be founded, in which to teach engineering, chemistry, and practical mechanics. In the provinces agriculture will be added to the number. But there is also reason to believe that the Imperial Government think they cannot for the present afford the expense of establishing so many special schools.

The late decree, which grants an increase of salary to the teachers in the communal schools, both male and female, must act well on the whole nation. An addition of £8 a year is an immense thing to each of the 5000 women whose salaries have been heretofore less than £16 per annum. M. Duruy justly observed to the Emperor, that they had hardly a mouthful of bread a-piece, and wondered how persons of their capacities could be induced to adopt a profession which brought them nothing but the greatest hardships. There are four classes of male teachers, three of whom are allowed an additional income of £8, and one of £24. The first are now paid at the rate of 1200 francs; the second, 1500 francs; the third, 1500 francs; and the fourth, 3600 francs, or £144. In addition to this, a commune demanding a school must grant 300 francs to the incoming teacher, and the State 300 francs more to enable him or her to buy furniture.

Some teachers have within the last month petitioned the Minister of Public Instruction against the unfairness of not placing the members of religious houses on the same level as the laics. These must go to greater expense and trouble in preparing themselves to teach, whilst the others need not even pass an examination in reading and writing before being authorized to open schools. Those have their respective orders to support them, and secret subsidies besides, which, during political crises, the bishops seldom fail to obtain. One cannot afford to teach without assistance from the commune, which has furnished the Imperial Government with an excuse during many years for confiding to their care the children in the rural districts, who would profit infinitely more were they, instead, allowed to idle about the fields, or sun themselves the whole day long. We have known of Roman Catholic traders, each enjoying a high reputation, who make it a rule never to employ a youth whom the *frères* have educated. The police records justify their antipathy to all such, who, unhappily, are very numerous, if one may judge from the number of clerical schools which have sprung up since 1852. In 1848 the clergy were not rich in educational establishments. But to-day they have 123 seminaries, 256 great schools; the Lazarists have 33, the Marists 15, and the Jesuits 11. Of the latter category, a column of a leading Paris journal was not many days ago filled with a list taken from the *Annuaire de l'Instruction Publique*, of those belonging to the *Frères* of St. Yon; of the Society of Marie; of the Holy

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Cross; of the Annunciation; of the Immaculate Conception; of Christian Instruction; the Petits Frères of St. Marie; of St. Frances Regis; of the Doctrine of Christian Mercy; of the Christian Doctrine of Sion Vaudemont (for the conversion of young Jews); of St. Mary of Egypt; of St. Joseph of Nazareth; of St. Elizabeth; of St. Anne; of Mount Carmel; and of the Holy Sepulchre. But this was not all. The lay teachers have been obliged to make use of class-books published by these orders. A week ago several were forbidden until further directions. In prohibiting them, M. Duruy had the courage to state his reasons for thus acting. They sprang from a conviction that children's minds are corrupted, their judgments warped, and a spirit of intolerance induced by such publications. This sentence may seem unduly harsh to those who have no opportunity of examining these works. We shall, therefore, before bringing this paper to a close, give some extracts from a book adopted in all communal schools of Paris. It is entitled *An Abridged History of the Church for the use of the Schools of St. Marie.* The biography of Martin Luther thus closes:—"Luther, the apostle of Protestantism, died shamefully, on rising from a repast at which, according to custom, he had gorged himself with meat and wine." Again,—"Calvin, of perfidious heart and infamously vicious habits, made war *à l'outrance* against the worship and dogmas of the Church. He died of a shameful malady in 1563. But before his perverted soul was severed from his corrupted body, he threw England into heresy, schism, and all the vices which spring from both." It would be unfair to expect from a Roman Catholic clergyman a justification of the Reformers of the 16th century. But it is difficult to conceive how any man of common education, living in the midst of a highly refined society, could pen such coarsely vulgar abuse, and fill children's minds with the obscene falsehoods of Garasse and Feuardent. Bossuet left the religious orders an example which they had in self-interest done well to follow, when he refuted the doctrines of the Protestant Divines, but refused to calumniate the Reformers. It may be, however, that the Bishop of Meaux was not so greatly tempted as those coming after him, who might not have had recourse to such low virulence, had the State ever dealt with public instruction as a purely secular question.

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THE MUSEUM.

JANUARY 1864.

I.—THE WÜRTEMBERG THEOLOGICAL SEMINARIES.

Of all the higher schools of Germany, with the single exception perhaps of Schulpfort in Prussian Saxony, none bear, *mutatis mutandis*, so much resemblance to the great public schools of England as the places of education for the Protestant clergy in Würtemberg. Though on a much smaller scale, in keeping with the small State to which they belong, yet they share with these English colleges a time-honoured venerability as remnants of the middle ages, improved by the influence of the Reformation, according to modern, religious, and intellectual exigencies; they exert a power equally great on the general standard of superior education throughout the whole country, and they contrive to unite their own peculiarly German principles with a management somewhat similar to that adopted in England. It is therefore no wonder that they appear frequently exposed both to similar praise and to similar blame from a more or less enlightened public opinion. Even in Germany itself many of the men educated in those Würtembergian Theological Seminaries, as they are called, are better known than the institutions to which they are indebted for their acquirements, and which, like "still waters running deep," do their work without attracting much public notice, but steadily and efficiently; it was however thought that their resemblance to English institutions, the example of which might not be without value to themselves, gave them a claim to some attention in this country. Were it necessary that this claim should be sustained by noteworthy proofs of their results, it might be done by mentioning, among their former pupils, names like Kepler, the astronomer; Schelling and Hegel, the philosophers; Valentine Andreæ, Albrecht Bengel, Plank and Spittler, Storr and Flatt, Dorner, Baur, Strauss, etc., theologians of the most opposite tenets; Julius Mohl, the orientalist; and G. Schwab, Hölderlin, and Möricke, the poets of the Suabian school.

It is usually considered as a particular blessing, that in Würtemberg,

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which lies between the Lutheran North of Germany and Calvinistic Switzerland, the Reformation was, under the control of Duke Christopher, an eminently wise and pious prince, introduced by two distinguished men, F. Brenz and A. Blaurer, the former a Lutheran, the latter a disciple of Zwingli. They succeeded in basing their reformation-work on a formula which kept a sound and happy mean between the orthodox Lutheran and the Calvinistic or reformed doctrine; and by giving to their Protestant Church from the beginning the character of a union in which the doctrine was more Lutheran, the ritual more Calvinistic, they spared the country many of the theological controversies and struggles which up to this day trouble the Protestantism of Germany. In order to secure a lasting foundation for the new order of things, they thought it of great importance that proper care be taken for the education of the new Protestant clergy; and as there happened to be at that time in the country a number of cloisters, whose further existence in their former state did not agree with the progress of reformation, these were placed under the direction of Protestant provosts; the monks then living in them were allowed to remain, as it were as fellows, but the institutions themselves were changed into colleges for the education of youths to be prepared for the study of theology at the university. About the year 1560, there were thirteen of these monastic colleges in the country; their management rested with their provosts, who received all the revenues, and exercised the right of bestowing some clerical livings attached to the colleges, whilst on the other hand they had to pay the masters, and to supply the wants of the pupils. The supreme authority, however, was in the hands of the Government, and regulations, written by F. Brenz in 1559, prescribed the course of studies to be followed in these institutions. According to these regulations the pupils entered in their fourteenth or fifteenth year—after having passed a competitive examination, especially in Latin grammar—and remained three or four years. The instruction was for a long time only classical; Latin was read, written, and spoken; in Greek the New Testament was prescribed, together with Xenophon and Demosthenes' Orations, *cum lectione cursoria grammaticæ et syntaxeos Græcæ;* in addition, the elements of Hebrew were to be taught, and music and singing were not to be neglected. It was not till the end of the last century that a further regulation allowed the introduction of geography and modern languages, but only as accessory lessons, or in the hours of recreation; and as to mathematics, arithmetic and geometry were to be studied in private lessons, so far as they did not withdraw the pupil's mind too much from his main classical pursuits. From these establishments the pupils proceeded to Tübingen, the old University of the country, for the purpose of studying theology, and here an institution awaited them, which, up to this day, bears a striking resemblance to an English university college. Formerly a monastery of Augustine monks, it was, in 1535, transformed into an upper seminary, "for the purpose of supplying the Church and the schools with well-qualified teachers," and as such was regularly organized by Duke Christopher in 1557. The students

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went and still go there from the lower seminaries, as the foundationers of Eton now may go to King's College, Cambridge.

It would be needless to give the further history of our institutions. Suffice it to say, that the upper seminary (the "Stift") at Tübingen is still existing, and serving under not materially altered forms its former purpose, and that the number of the lower ones (*die niederen Seminare*) has gradually dwindled down to four,—two on their ancient sites, the venerable abbey of Maulbronn, with its beautiful Romanesque and Gothic architecture, and that at Blaubeuren, in a picturesque valley of the Suabian Jura, and two removed—partly in consequence of their destruction by war—to new places; the one at Urach, also in a romantic valley of the Jura, and the other at Schönthal, a former Benedictine monastery, known as the burying-place of the popular hero, Götz of Berlichingen. The monks, whose position has been compared to that of fellows, had no successors; masters and pupils were the only inmates remaining, and the management of the institutions has been since taken into the hands of the State, and exercised by the Council on Education. The Church takes charge of the future young clergyman only after his education has been completed under the care of the secular Government; but it watches the course taken in that education through one of the members of its consistory, he being at the same time a member of the before-named council. It may also be mentioned here, that the seminaries have lost their exclusively ecclesiastical character; they prepare now, although in a limited number compared with the theologians, men for all learned professions, and the course of studies followed in them is not materially different from that in the gymnasia of the country, which are also meant to bestow a superior classical education, and more specially to prepare for an academical career; so that if we confine our remarks to the main object of the seminaries, the education of the future Protestant clergyman, we are still at the same time giving an idea of the working of our higher classical schools generally. In the education of the future minister of the Church, we have to distinguish three periods; the time before entering the lower seminary, the training within the latter, and the studies at the university. Finally, a few words may be added about regulations, tending to keep up a certain standard of scientific proficiency among the clergy themselves.

To prepare a boy for entering one of the lower seminaries is usually the task of the grammar-schools (*Lateinschulen*) of the smaller towns, or of the lower forms of the gymnasia in the larger ones. The gymnasia are day-schools which, similarly to the High School and Academy of Edinburgh, give lessons only, without any system of tuition besides; they usually have ten forms, each to be attended for one whole year. The six lower forms correspond with the grammar-schools, the four upper ones with the seminaries. A boy generally enters the first form in his eighth year, after having spent perhaps a year or two before in an elementary school, where he learned reading, writing, and arithmetic. The instruction given in those lower forms, as well as in the grammar-schools, will be best understood by following one particular

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example, for which purpose we select the management of the six lower classes of the gymnasium at Ulm. There the first form gets eighteen lessons a week, four in Latin (declensions, pronouns, first conjugation, and the necessary exercises), four in German (reading and writing), three in religious instruction (history of the Old Testament, and learning by heart Scripture verses and hymns, the latter exercise being continued through all the six lower forms), three in arithmetic, and three in writing. The second form, composed of boys of about nine years of age, has fourteen hours a week of Latin, so that during the year the accidence and some of the easier syntactical rules may be learned. Among the Latin exercises, we notice the *argumentum* or *hebdomadarium*, which is first introduced in this form, and is henceforth carried through all forms of the gymnasia, as well as of the seminaries; it consists of a piece of German, more easy or more difficult according to the capacity of the class, which is dictated in one of the lessons, and is to be translated into Latin at home. In the lower forms it may consist of simple sentences; in the upper forms it is prominent as an exercise in Latin prose. It holds the same place which Latin verses take in English public schools, while the exercise in verse-making, although not wanting, is still not considered so important in Germany. The other twelve hours are given to German, religious instruction, arithmetic, and writing; altogether, twenty-six hours a week at school. The third form has also twenty-six lessons a week; Latin takes sixteen hours, and geography now has a share of the other ten. In the fourth form, with boys of about eleven years of age, Greek is commenced (those boys who do not require Greek for their future career taking French instead). The Latin lessons take twelve hours, the Greek six, while the usual modern subjects, with the addition now of history, occupy other ten hours; twenty-eight hours a week in all. The fifth and sixth forms have each thirty-one weekly lessons, twelve of which are given to Latin, and six to Greek. Each form has its own master for classics and some other lessons; those in mathematics are given by the same mathematical master through all classes. The discipline in the gymnasia, each class in which has more than forty boys, in many cases much fewer, is very simple. Punishments are—bad marks in the class-book, some increase of work (learning by heart) to be done either at home or during the hours of recreation in the school-room; in grave cases, some hours' incarceration. Flogging is more or less practised in the lower forms; in the upper ones and in the seminaries, that is, after a boy has reached his fourteenth year, it is strictly forbidden. The system of prizes is not adopted in any of these institutions (except to a limited extent in the gymnasium at Stuttgart, and in the University at Tübingen); the only reward to which a boy aspires is, to obtain and maintain a tolerably good place in his form. The places are generally taken on Saturdays according to competition in a Latin translation made in the school, and commonly called the *pro loco;* periodical examinations, and the certificates of the master, determine a boy's place after the end of a whole term, the year being divided into two terms.

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After having gone through the six classes of a grammar-school or gymnasium, and having reached in the meantime his fourteenth or fifteenth year, a boy who determines to prepare himself for the study of theology may proceed to the upper forms of his gymnasium, or he may get his further instruction by private tuition; but if he prefer the regular way, he will attend the competitive examination for reception into one of the before-named lower seminaries. This examination, known under the name of the *Land examen*, takes place every autumn at Stuttgart. From sixty to eighty boys usually compete, some of them without the ambition of being received into the seminaries, but merely to try their intellectual powers; almost all the grammar-schools of the country, many masters and many parents are interested in the result, which therefore is always looked forward to with the greatest anxiety. The examination lasts three days, and is conducted, under the superintendence of a member of the Council on Education, by a commission of masters from the gymnasia and the seminaries. To secure fairness, the examination is always conducted by two persons, who take notes, independently of each other, and afterwards check one another in their observations. The greatest importance is attached to classics; a piece of German prose (the *Argumentum*) has to be translated in writing into Latin, and another one into Greek. On the other hand, a piece of Latin (called the *Periodus*) must be translated into German, and to this is added an oral translation of Latin and Greek into German, combined with parsing and grammatical questions; a description in German has to be written about some given subject; questions relating to religion and mathematical problems are answered in writing; and an oral examination is passed in geography and history.

Those who succeed in being among the thirty (now temporarily only twenty-five) first candidates, form the picked body, who are received as the foundationers of one of the four seminaries already mentioned. They enjoy there the valuable privilege of cost-free instruction and board, which is, of course, eagerly sought for by those who, from want of means, would otherwise lose the benefit of a university education. Besides these foundationers, who are all (we shall have to mention exceptions below) presumed, when at the university, to go through the study of theology, some fifteen to twenty boys are received in the seminary under the name of *hospites*, who may be future theologians, but may also aspire to any other liberal profession; they are under the same regulations as the foundationers, but are obliged to pay a moderate annual sum for their board and instruction. A smaller number of them (four to five) may be placed under the private tuition of one of the masters, whom they pay for it; they are called *hospites privati*. The whole body of the pupils, therefore, consists of forty to forty-five boys, and is commonly called a "promotion," because they get their "remove" together. In that body the foundationers prevail, whilst at Eton they are in a minority. Yet even the smaller number of the *hospites* is an exceedingly valuable element; it prevents the education from being one-sided, and directed at too early an age to

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the special purposes of the future service of the Church. It may, however, be fairly said, that the whole course of instruction in these institutions is as liberal as in any secular one of a similar kind. Their ecclesiastical character, so far as it exists, has the same dignifying influence upon them, which a school like Eton acquires from its peculiar connexion with the Church. The arrangement whereby each seminary receives the year's "promotion" in turn is not very different from that of the High School at Edinburgh, where each set of pupils remains under the same master for four consecutive years; so that in each seminary all the pupils are of nearly the same age, and going as one body through the prescribed course of four years' studies at the same place. One consequence is obvious, that the English system of discipline, based on the authority of the sixth form, and on fagging, has not its counterpart at the seminaries; from some cause which it would be difficult to explain, the custom of fagging is highly developed at the university, and especially in the upper seminary connected with it.

Each of the lower seminaries has a staff of five teachers, whose duties are marked by some peculiarities. The head master, the former provost, is now officially called *Ephorus;* he has lost all his clerical functions, and although he almost always is, yet he need not necessarily be even a member of the clergy. Being placed under the immediate authority of the Council on Education, he is intrusted with the superintendence of the whole institution; presides over the meetings of the masters, which on an average are held once every month, to discuss and settle current affairs; and is bound to give about five or six lessons a week. Next to him are two professors appointed by Government, both generally, but not always theologians, who give ten to twelve lessons a week, and have to exercise a general tutorial control each over one half of the whole number of the pupils. A certain tutorship, connected with the supervision of the studies, and reminding one, to some extent, of that exercised in the pupil-room by a master of an English public school, is in the hands of two younger unmarried members of the staff, who bear the name of *Repetentes*. As teachers, they are bound to not more than five or six lessons a week; as tutors, they have their rooms each between two pupil-rooms, the doors of which they open to exercise some surveillance over the pupils while they are doing their home-work. They also conduct the morning prayers (the professors those of the evenings), partake of the meals with the boys, and sleep in bed-rooms close to those of the latter, between whom, and the authority of head-master and professors, they form a certain intermediate power. They have an excellent opportunity of acquiring some proficiency in teaching, and find plenty of time to prosecute their own studies. If they are fond of working among youths, they usually find their situations particularly agreeable; they exercise great influence on the boys at work and play, and when the latter are growing older, their relation to them takes almost the shape of friendship, and is, as the present writer, who held one of those tutorships for three years, can certify from his own experience, a source of deep and manifold satisfaction.

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During the four years' course of studies, each year is divided into two terms, from April to September, and from October to March, the weeks between, together with ten days at Christmas, being holidays. The number of weekly lessons, each of one hour's duration, is thirty to thirty-two. The instruction given is chiefly classical; ten to twelve hours a week being taken up with Latin and Greek, and four with Hebrew. The principle adhered to is to have a fixed concentration effected on one main object, the classics; but to guard against that concentration being one-sided, only in so far, however, as not to fall into the opposite danger of too great dissipation of thought. With this view, mathematics, history, geography, and natural philosophy are introduced, and time is also set apart for declamation, music, and gymnastics. Trials and examinations at the end of each term determine a boy's place, in connexion with the certificate he gets from the several masters.

The foundationers and *hospites* (with the exception of those under the special tutorship of the professors) live in four large halls (each being occupied by about nine), so that there is always between two of these the study of one of the *repetentes;* the bedrooms and the great schoolroom are in separate parts of the building. The necessary order during the day is to a certain extent maintained by monitors elected weekly among the boys. Punishments consist in bad marks entered in the diaries, in close confinement,—the latter however only for grave offences,—and in total expulsion. As there is no school chapel, the boys are compelled to go once every Sunday to the morning service of the parish church, where the clergyman of the parish officiates; only at Schönthal the professors and *repetentes* have for special reasons to preach in turns every fortnight, and they frequently value this as an occasion for giving exhortations to their pupils, for which no other opportunity could be found.

It is now time to follow our young student one step further in the course of his education. This step, after leaving the lower seminary, is to pass again over the threshold of a rather searching examination. Those who wish to enter the university for the sake of other branches of study than theology, pass the usual maturity-examination, which is held twice a year, and is indispensable for becoming an under-graduate at the university. His reception in the upper seminary of Tübingen, however, depends on a competitive examination (called the *Concursus*) of three days' duration, held at Stuttgart, by a committee consisting, not as formerly, of university professors, but of masters of those seminaries and gymnasia which have none of their own pupils passing the examination at the time, and of one controlling Government deputy. It does not materially differ from the general matriculation examination; its peculiarity being only the addition of Hebrew to the usual tasks; but in order to enable its distinct object of competition to be carried out it is held at a different time, and as a separate act. Almost the whole "promotion" which has left one of the lower seminaries, enters into that competition with twelve to eighteen young men who had hitherto studied in the upper forms of the gymnasia, or

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had profited by other means of instruction. Out of the whole number of forty to forty-eight who present themselves, the thirty (now temporarily twenty-five) first enter the upper seminary as students of theology; the remainder obtain the right of entering the university only, and those who do not succeed in passing at all (always three or four), have the choice of either being examined again the following year, or of choosing some other vocation. The examination is oral only in Latin (exposition of Livy or Tacitus), in Greek (Homer or Demosthenes), and in Hebrew (some book of the Old Testament); the rest is in writing: a Latin *argumentum* and *periodus* have to be worked out, a piece of Greek and one of Hebrew (which are both dictated) are translated into German, questions on religious subjects, in algebra and geometry and on history are answered, and besides, a German essay is written on some subject given by the committee (*e.g.*, What is to be said from the ancient, and what from the Christian point of view on the words of Horace: *Nil mortalibus arduum est!*)

The upper seminary at Tübingen, which, we suppose, our student is now entering, is not, it is true, an independent body like a college at an English university; it is placed under the Council on Education, and its functionaries are appointed and paid by Government; it is not an institution for general university education, but although it includes a wide range of different studies, its character is still eminently theological; its inmates have board and part of their instruction free, while an English undergraduate usually pays for his college tuition; it can, however, so far be well compared with one of the English colleges, as, like these latter, it does not only stand in intimate connexion with the university, but has, besides, an elaborate system of college reading and of college tuition, which distinguishes it from all other similar institutions in Germany. The head of the college, also called *Ephorus*, being always at the same time a professor of the university, forms, with two members of the theological faculty and of that of arts, the local governing body. As the institution gets every year from one of the lower seminaries thirty new pupils, and as the prescribed course of studies takes four years (or eight terms), the number of the resident students is generally about one hundred, perhaps twenty others living for different reasons in the town, and partaking only of the instruction given in the seminary. Four or five men of those living in the house have one study and one bedroom together, and as they are of four different ages, the system of fagging which is still flourishing in all German universities, finds here a particularly favourable sphere. The disciplinary regulations to which they are bound were formerly unnecessarily strict and severe, but have recently been improved, according to more liberal principles, and do not differ very much from those of an English college.

As members of the university, the students frequent the lectures delivered there, according to the system of academical education introduced in Germany and in Scotland; they are perfectly free to attend any lecture on any subject they like, provided that it does not too materially interfere with a certain normal plan of instruction laid down by

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the authorities of the seminary. This plan is framed with the distinct view of making theology the main object of the prescribed studies; but as in one's eighteenth year the intellectual faculties are not yet thought sufficiently developed to be able to grasp a wider range of knowledge, and to rise to a free scientific judgment, the study of theology, properly speaking, is preceded partly by a continuation of the former classical and mathematical instruction, partly—and this to a far greater extent—by the study of philosophy. Consequently the main business of the first term is the ancient Greek philosophy, especially that of Plato and Aristotle; in addition, lectures are attended on classics or on mathematics, on history, and on exegesis of some book of the Old Testament. The second term includes the history of modern philosophy, from Cartesius to Hegel, particular attention being generally paid to the works of Spinoza and Kant. Hebrew exegesis, and classics or mathematics are continued, with the addition of a course of lectures on natural philosophy. The third term is devoted to psychology, metaphysics, morals, and politics, and to the exegesis of the Old Testament; the fourth includes apologetics, the philosophy of religion, and the history of the different existing religions, introduction to the Old and New Testaments, and exegetical studies of the synoptics. It is, therefore, only here that the real study of theology begins. The subject of the fifth term is dogmatics, exegesis of the writings of St. Paul, and the theology of the Old Testament; that of the sixth is also dogmatics, having particular regard to the symbols and confessions of the different Christian churches and denominations, exegesis of St. John's gospel and epistles, and of the Epistle to the Hebrews, and theology of the New Testament. During the seventh and eighth terms, the studies are directed towards the history of the dogma and of the Church, towards ethics, homiletics, pastoral theology, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. In the first two years there are continuous exercises in declamation; in the third, short sermons have to be delivered by heart every Sunday afternoon in the college-hall; and during the last year the students, who are now called "candidates," perform the morning and evening preaching, and the catechization of children in a public chapel, the service of which is entirely given into their hands.

It only remains for us to show how, through that whole course, there is combined with the instruction in the university a special training on the part of the seminary itself. It is in the hands of a staff of college-tutors, as it were, the fellows of the institution, who also bear the name of *repetentes*, and who, after having been chosen from the best of its former pupils, spend here, before entering the public service of the Church, or of the higher schools, some months or years partly in superintending the labours of the students, partly in prosecuting their own scientific studies. They give college lessons on the main subjects of each term, and compensate the defects of the mere hearing of university lectures by the more lively mode of questioning the students, and discussing those subjects with them; they conduct examinations, oral and written, at the end of each term, and preside over the theological disputations of the candidates in the college-hall, which

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they are expected to introduce and to close by well-set Latin speeches. They have also the *venia legendi*, that is, the privilege of lecturing at the university. Each of them has his rooms between two students' halls, upon the inmates of which he has to bestow particular care in directing their studies, and giving them every desirable advice. It is a rule of the seminary, and one that has proved particularly beneficial, that each student should write in every term two essays (of at least twelve pages each) on subjects usually chosen by himself, which, however, must be connected with the principal studies of the current term. Four of these essays are written in Latin, the rest in German, and the reading and correcting of them forms an essential part of the duties of the *repetentes*.

As it is the distinct purpose of the seminary to provide not only the Church with future ministers, but also the higher schools of the country with masters, it follows, as a matter of course, that those of the students who aspire to the latter profession, combine with their theological training, as far as possible, a great variety of other studies, especially classics, philosophy, and history, mathematics and astronomy, natural history and natural philosophy. Hitherto they also have been expected to pass the theological examination at the end of their academical career; by recent regulations, however, it has been determined that this examination shall be dispensed with in particular instances, *i.e.*, where men have specially distinguished themselves in classics or mathematics, and are determined not to take orders, but intend to engage in some scholastic pursuit.

The seminary gives no especial rewards for scientific proficiency; it is only the university that honours with prizes dissertations on certain scientific problems proposed by the different faculties. Those of the faculty of arts are frequently competed for by the pupils of the seminary; those of the theological faculty, which include also a prize sermon and a prize catechization, are less popular, on account of their requiring too much time and special attention at a period less convenient for the students.

The main object to be attained after the described course of academical education is, to go successfully through the first theological Government examination, which, no longer a competitive one, takes place twice every year at Tübingen, and is conducted by a committee, consisting of the university professors of divinity and one controlling member of the Protestant Consistory as a Government delegate. It is partly oral and partly in writing, and includes exegesis of the Old and New Testaments, dogmatics, ethics, history of the dogma and of the Church, a sermon, which must be written, and delivered in the chapel, and a catechization. This examination, and this alone, entitles the candidate to enter the service of the Church as a curate, or of the higher schools as an assistant-master; it qualifies him also to be employed as one of the *repetentes*, and if he succeeds in passing it with a first-class, or at least a good second-class character, he may apply for exhibitions connected with the seminary, which enable him to spend six months or a year on travels, or on a stay at some other

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German or foreign university. It is no wonder that, through the influence of these Government examinations, the university degrees have lost much of their former importance. While a whole promotion of the upper seminary was, in former times, in the last year of its stay, after a public theological disputation, solemnly created master of arts, now the degree of a doctor of philosophy is almost the only one which is sought for by those who propose either to enter upon some specially scientific career, or to travel in foreign countries, where it may be desirable to certify their legitimate connexion with the university.

A second divinity examination, about three years after the first one, sometimes even much later, is passed at Stuttgart before a committee of the consistory of the Church, and corresponds to the English ordination examination before the bishop, while the one preceding it takes, in a certain respect at least, the place of the examination for a degree at the university. It includes nearly the same subjects as the first one, with the only addition of questions about school management and pastoral theology, and finally authorizes to apply for any living or other clerical situation. The regulations of the Church further provide, that the standard of scientific proficiency obtained by the clergy should not be too soon and too much lowered by the daily performance of practical and social duties. Each clergyman is bound, up to his fiftieth year, to send in every year one essay written in German or Latin, on some question of theological or pastoral or social interest, and he has, moreover, up to his sixtieth year to be present at an annual theological disputation of his diocese, presided over by the dean. Each diocese has, besides this, a circulating library, which provides its members regularly with periodicals and other theological and scientific publications.

Although much may be said in criticising the institutions which we have endeavoured to describe, or proposing material improvements, as whether, *e.g.*, the four lower seminaries could not be combined into one more extensive institution, to which the management of an English public school might be still more applicable, etc., it will be sufficient to confine ourselves to the following observations: The system of tuition and training which the seminaries afford must be particularly valuable in a country where all other schools are only day-schools, providing almost nothing but mental instruction, and leaving a boy's general education entirely to himself or to his parents. Long experience has shown that the living and striving together of a picked body of boys and young men naturally exercises a beneficent influence on almost every one of them; there is, amongst other things, a strong and efficient check to arrogance and conceitedness, and here too are formed those deep and permanent college friendships which last for ever even among men who, in after life, differ most strongly in their theological or political opinions, and of which we speak with the same gratification as do those who have passed through the English public schools and colleges. Further, the competitive examinations effect, what in this country is produced by the system of prizes, namely, more earnestness and a more concentrated application to studies. It is true that the danger of overworking one's self is often justly feared, and has

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indeed, in some instances, shown itself by grave consequences; but it is a danger almost inevitable, which, in some way or other, will always reappear, and which, if found out, parents and masters must be satisfied to prevent, as much as possible, by practical exhortation and advice. In order to overcome a still greater danger,—that the occasion of receiving a liberal university education, which for want of the necessary pecuniary means would otherwise perhaps have been inaccessible, might induce parents to compel boys to study that in which they do not feel interested, or to adopt a career for which they have themselves no predilection, or regarding which they have not yet been able to make up their mind,—the regulations enact, that if ever in either of the seminaries a student finds himself decidedly at variance with the present or future prospects before him, he be at any time entitled to apply for his discharge free of cost, which in such cases is never withheld from him. Should some considerable time have already been spent at the seminaries, so that the boy was kept back from some other vocation, he will usually find sufficient comfort in having, at all events, passed through a course of education which must prove useful in almost all branches to which he may afterwards devote himself. The restitution of a certain sum of money for board and instruction received from the seminaries is demanded by the Government only in cases where the dismission is the consequence of bad conduct or of grave offences, or where the student is permanently entering foreign service. Even then, however, much leniency is generally observed.

In conclusion, the one remark in favour of our seminaries may be added, that whatever may be the deficiencies of their management, and of the education which they impart, yet repeated attempts to have them reorganized in a way which would prove fatal to their very existence have hitherto constantly failed. They were opposed by that prudent conservative feeling of the people which dreads to destroy what is, after such long existence, and after a vast and beneficial influence on the general state of education, connected by so many strong ties with the country. That feeling is in form of a prophecy expressed in a curious old inscription found on the walls of the seminary of Tübingen, which, we hope, will never be tried as to its veracity, and which runs thus: "Hoc claustrum cum patria sua statque caditque."

E. Wagner, Ph.D.

II.—OPEN COMPETITION IN THEORY AND IN PRACTICE.

It must be admitted that the progress which the system of Competitive Examinations is making, however sure it may be, is but slow. The Indian Civil Service continues to be the only case in which the system exists in its completeness. In the military arm of the service it is making steady progress, and with the best results. But there is

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as yet really no such thing as absolutely open competition in the Home Civil Service. Limited competition would better describe the principle there in force; for the competition is confined to those who have previously obtained from the patrons of the office a nomination, or right to compete. The nominees are selected in the average ratio of three to each vacancy, so that the patron is now able to gratify three friends by nominating the protégés of all, instead of pleasing only one and offending the other two; while the odium of the final selection is handed over to the Civil Service Commissioners. From this we may gather what was meant by several speakers in the House of Commons on a late occasion, when they insisted that the patronage of Government, instead of being diminished, had actually been tripled by the new system. In fact this limited competition is but a slight modification of the old system of patronage. It still confines the appointments to much the same classes as enjoyed them before; and it selects the candidates in the first instance on grounds which do not imply either general capacity or special fitness. That the selected candidates are by no means the best possible, appears from the fact that, out of the large number of candidates nominated, the Civil Service Commissioners have in no year been able to find a sufficient number who were qualified for the vacant appointments. Over the last five years the average of situations competed for is 261; the average of successful competitors is only 229; of unsuccessful, 558. The system cannot therefore be held as giving open competition a fair trial; and the objections taken to open competition judged thereby cannot claim very much weight.

Even competition of this limited kind, however, exists in the Home Civil Service to a comparatively small extent. In 1862, the proportion of vacancies disposed of by absolute nomination was fifty-eight per cent., leaving only forty-two per cent. to be filled up by limited competition; and even that is smaller than the proportion in the preceding year. It is true that the absolute nominees require to go through the form of a pass examination. But a pass examination is not an ordeal to which much weight attaches; and it cannot be very trying in this case, when the rejections amount to no more than one in seven. "A mere pass examination," says Mr. John Stuart Mill,* "never, in the long run, does more than exclude absolute dunces . . . the standard of proficiency sinks gradually to something almost contemptible." And that it has so sunk here is sufficiently proved by the statistics of the last eight years in the Commissioners' Report.†

Though these results are by no means encouraging, we believe that they have not shaken the confidence of the supporters of open competition in the soundness of the system. But that system continues to be so persistently assailed as to render it necessary periodically to go over the grounds on which it rests.

With this view, let it be granted—not an unreasonable postulate—that the end to be reached is to secure the best possible men for the

* *Considerations on Representative Government*, p. 259.

† *Eighth Report of H.M.'s C. S. C.'s*, p. 10.

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public service,—the best morally, intellectually, and physically,—the question arises, How is this superior fitness to be ascertained? The system of patronage adopts one method,—that of personal recommendation and private inquiry. The competitive system adopts another method,—that of subjecting individual qualifications to a comparative test. It should not be forgotten, however, that under both systems there must be competition. Both have to deal with a large number of candidates applying for a much smaller number of vacant situations. All the applicants cannot get places under any system. Which, then, is the safest principle of selection on which A can be appointed in preference to his inferiors B and C?

It will be well, before considering this question, to determine what are the elements of which fitness for the public service should consist. There is not much room for diversity of opinion here. They have already been summed up in the three qualities of moral, physical, and intellectual fitness. It should be understood, however, that moral fitness includes not only good character and exemplary conduct, but that trustworthiness in dealing with important private or secret business which is indispensable in the higher grade of Goverment servants. We must understand intellectual fitness, too, as embracing both that general capacity and intelligence which are fostered by liberal education, and that practical knowledge required for the discharge of special duties.

Now we shall clear the ground of a great deal of irrelevant discussion, if at the outset we put out of account those points which the two systems, patronage and competition, have in common, or which both possess the same facilities for determining. Of this nature are the first two elements of fitness specified above,—moral and physical qualifications. As to both of these points, there are no means of obtaining information within the reach of patronage which competition cannot also command. And in point of fact, in the Indian Civil Service Examinations, every competitor is required to lodge evidence both of good moral character, and of good physical constitution, before any intellectual examination takes place. It is therefore a very unfair statement of the case to say that literary papers cannot test moral principle, that the public service requires qualities for which the cleverest written answers afford no guarantee, and to make this a ground of objection to the examination system. That system does not profess to test moral character by arithmetical and historical questions. Neither does it seek to supersede moral qualifications by fanciful or showy intellectual attainments. It leaves the moral and physical elements, as well as the points of age, parentage, and country, quite undisturbed. The great distinguishing peculiarity of the competitive system is, that it *superadds* to the former methods of ascertaining moral and physical fitness a new and more systematic method of discovering mental capacity and competent knowledge.

To this point, therefore, the discussion must be narrowed:—Which system affords the best guarantee of intellectual fitness? Now the truth is, that under the system of absolute nomination no pains are taken to

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ascertain this point with any accuracy. The tests are purely adventitious, and therefore unreliable,—consisting chiefly in private inquiries, and the recommendations of interested friends. Care may be taken not to appoint a thorough imbecile; certificates of qualification may be demanded. A carefully written letter of application—revised, probably, by a competent friend—is taken as evidence of proficiency in handwriting, spelling, and composition. But all this is for the most part a mere form. The appointment is a foregone conclusion, arrived at on quite different grounds, and which it would require evidence of very glaring unfitness to overthrow. In fact, on the last occasion on which this question was discussed in the House of Commons, Lord Palmerston very honestly admitted this when he said, "It is only natural that in discharging this duty [of filling up vacancies], Government should consult the interests of their friends and supporters, instead of those of their opponents." Where, it may be asked, are the interests of the public service to come in? But indeed this admission contains the whole truth. Patronage is a perquisite of Government, which is invested in political and party influence; and it yields too large a profit to be lightly cast aside even by the pledged friends of open competition.

The competitive system, on the other hand, supplies us with a definite educational test, yielding definite and appreciable results. Mr. Mill says decidedly, "the *only* thing by which the best candidates can be discriminated is proficiency in the ordinary branches of liberal education."—(P. 258.)

(1.) In the first place, such a test is obviously superior to no test at all. Moral and physical qualifications being, as has been shown, determinable under both systems, to that system which, in addition to this, elicits definite proof of *any* mental fitness must be accorded the superiority.

(2.) The power of the competitive system to ascertain the possession of mere knowledge—those practical acquirements which the right discharge of every duty presupposes,—this power, no one will deny it. Over and above this, however, we maintain that that system is the only true and reliable gauge of mental capacity, of a cultivated mind,—short, of course, of actual and prolonged experience, which discovers incapacity when it is too late to remedy it. How does the matter stand? The candidates are young men, fresh from school or college. Their lives hitherto have been spent in learning. Education has been their work. This has been the only field in which they have had an opportunity either of cultivating or of showing their powers; and in this field, therefore, should their capacity be put to the test. It is the field, moreover, in which *all* the applicants have been, or should have been, occupied; and it is therefore the fairest ground on which all can be asked to enter the lists as competitors. It is further the peculiarity of an educational test, that the instrument which it employs to ascertain general capacity is to a large extent that very practical knowledge which special duties require, and all duties more or less require, for their right performance.

This appears to be very strangely overlooked by the opponents of the examination system when they question, as they are accustomed to

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do, the utility of the subjects in which candidates are examined; and when they ridicule, as it is very easy to do, the kind of questions that are asked. These examinations are designed to ascertain, not only how much a candidate knows, but whether he is educated to any extent, and to what extent. With this view, the subjects of examination must be—not only those required in public offices—but those usually included in a liberal education. Some of the subjects themselves may be of very partial utility afterwards—though this is very unlikely—yet they may be invaluable as tests. However worthless a yard-wand may be as a piece of wood, it is very useful as a measure of length; and it measures not only the material to which it is applied, but the labour which has produced it. So, a historical paper measures not only a candidate's historical knowledge, but the power expended in, and cultivated by, acquiring that knowledge. And that power, be it remembered, is something distinct from the special subject through which it has been tested, and it is as ready to be applied to official duty now, as it was to school duty before.

To put the matter in another light, let us suppose the case of two clerks entering on the discharge of similar duties, one of whom is an absolute nominee, and the other a successful competitor. As regards their special duties, the two young men are exactly on an equality: both have everything to learn. Now we say nothing either in praise or in disparagement of the nominee, for we have no direct evidence either of his capacity or of his knowledge. But, we are entitled to ask, is the competitor likely to learn his duties less readily, or to discharge them less intelligently and assiduously,—in short, is he less likely to prove an efficient public servant, because he *has* given proof of his intelligence, because he has got his appointment by right of fitness, and not by favour? Is education to be regarded as a positive disqualification for official life? Surely if it makes a man no better, education cannot make him any worse. On the contrary, he who has gained one step by his own efforts, is not likely to relax these efforts when only one step has been gained. Nay more, there is a strong antecedent probability that the man who has not only acquired knowledge, but has formed habits of application, and perseverance, and concentration, in the course of his preliminary training, will bring the same qualities to bear upon his public duty, and will therefore turn out the more valuable servant, the more useful member of society,—in every respect the better man.

It is sometimes said that patronage has "blood" in its favour; that the men appointed under that system are of a higher class socially, are pervaded by a better tone; that they are born to govern, as other men are born "to labour and to wait." But the competitive system does not exclude this class of persons; and if the argument is worth anything, it amounts simply to an admission that, when brought to a definite intellectual test, on a fair field and with no favour, the upper classes have no chance against the middle classes of society. And if the upper classes were educated with an efficiency corresponding to their advantages and opportunities, they should be able to beat all

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rivals out of the field. Open competition does not seek to wrest either patronage or place from any class of society; it only asks that, to whatever class public servants belong, they shall give proof of their fitness for the work.

So much for the system in theory; and it would be difficult, we think, for any one to maintain, in the face of these considerations, that it is not the most reasonable system that can be devised. Good and sound, however, as it is in principle, much of its real value must depend on the manner in which it is carried out in practice. In this view it resembles many other human institutions, inasmuch as its strong points are also its weakest; and it is to those points that we can now most profitably direct our attention.

We shall find a striking example of this combined strength and weakness when, leaving the public or general aspects of the question, which have chiefly occupied us hitherto, we come to view it in its educational bearings. One of the greatest benefits which the system can confer is the amount of educational activity which it calls forth. Though it still exists to a very limited extent, it has already produced a sensible effect on places of education, both middle and higher; and it has done good service in bringing to light what Mr. Mill calls "the disgracefully low existing state of education in the country." It has given a new and distinct marketable value to education, the nature of which may be gathered from the fact, that several of the Indian Civil servants appointed in the first open competition, in 1855, are already in receipt of salaries of eleven, twelve, fifteen, and eighteen hundred a year. It thus acts as a stimulus both to teachers and to taught; and it excites a wholesome rivalry between different places of education, by which all benefit alike. The last Report of the Civil Service Commissioners contains, amongst several interesting Appendices, one consisting of Letters from the various Universities in England, Scotland, and Ireland, detailing the facilities afforded in each for the training of candidates for the Indian Civil Service. From these communications it appears that, in consequence of the demands of that service, important additions have, in several cases, been made to the curriculum, of subjects which, but for these demands, could not or would not have been cultivated. Thus not only is education encouraged, but learning is extended.

There is reason to fear, however, that this educational activity is not all good. As regards the Home Civil Service especially, it seems unquestionable that much of the educational effort excited is of a spasmodic and spurious character. It is true, we believe, that many a competitor only begins to study in earnest after he has succeeded in obtaining a nomination; and he devotes the few weeks intervening between that and his examination to an assiduous "cramming" of the special subjects which the office he is nominated to requires. Now when the examination is such that its demands can be satisfied by an unwholesome system of rapid gorging like this, it can do little good; it must do harm; and it furthermore loses its value as a test of intellectual fitness.

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Serious as this evil is, we cannot admit that it is inseparable from the competitive system, or that that system is responsible for its existence.

(1.) We believe that, in the first place, it is very much owing to the circumstance that, as already explained, the competition in the Home Civil Service is not open, but limited. The Indian Civil Service is comparatively free from this evil; and it is so, chiefly because there the competition is thoroughly open; and intending competitors are thus enabled to form their resolution, and to commence their preparation, while they are still boys at school, years before their examination takes place. In the case of the Home Service, on the other hand, there is a strong temptation to delay all systematic preparation until a nomination has been obtained. Nay more, the qualifications for the different offices are so unnecessarily varied, that no one can tell what subjects he may be examined in until he knows the particular office for which he is named. So far, then, this is not a fault of open, but of limited, competition.

(2.) But, secondly, it is a serious fault in any examination that its demands can be satisfied in this way. Again, however, the fault is one of practice, not of principle. More specifically, the producing causes of the evil lie both in the nature of the subjects prescribed, and in the character of the questions asked. The very fact already noticed, that nearly every situation requires a different set of qualifying subjects, indicates that these subjects are selected and arranged on a wrong principle. But in both cases the demands are too exclusively confined to knowledge which can be easily acquired, to the neglect of ability or intelligence. They appeal too much to the acquisitive and retentive faculties, too little to the judgment. In the most elementary examinations, arithmetic is the staple subject; but all the questions without exception can be worked by rule. There is never, or hardly ever, a question requiring the candidates to state the reason of a rule, or of the simplest operation that the most elementary rule prescribes. In examinations of a higher grade, history and geography are added; but here again it is facts, facts, facts, from first to last; and these, too, in the beaten track of battles, treaties, dynasties, and constitutional acts. Everything would appear to be done to help the cram-masters, and the compilers of cram-books,—those publications which are doing so much harm by giving permanence to false systems of instruction. When the classical or the modern languages are prescribed, bare and simple translation is all that is required; no etymological or syntactical questions are asked. On the same principle, English grammar, which would necessitate some theoretical questioning, is very rarely prescribed. In short, those subjects and questions are adhered to which tax the memory, and may be got up from cram-books and coaches; those are carefully avoided which throw a student on his own resources and gauge the understanding.

Injurious and grievous as all this is, we repeat that the fault does not lie with the competitive system. It is an abuse of that system. The blame rests with those who conduct the examinations. With them,

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too, rests the power to remedy the evil. They can do so, 1*st*, by abolishing the excessive variety of subjects which different situations require—a point which is condemned by the Commissioners in their last report; 2*d*, by giving greater prominence to intellectual subjects, such as theoretical arithmetic, mathematics, and grammar,—English, in the elementary stages; Latin, Greek, etc., in the more advanced—and less prominence to fact and rote subjects, such as history and geography; and 3*d*, by introducing into all their papers a larger number of questions of an intellectual character. Thus surely, thus simply, and thus only, can cramming be defeated.

It will be observed that we have exempted from these strictures on the mode of administering this system, the Examinations for the Indian Civil Service. That department is administered with admirable judgment, thoroughness, and skill. And as the Indian service is the only case in which the competitive system has had a fair and full trial, so the friends of open competition may confidently point to it as an example of its signal success.

WALTER SCOTT DALGLEISH.

III.—THE WRATH OF BACCHUS.

THE ENTRY INTO THEBES.

[The following are translations from the Metamorphoses of Ovid, from III. 511 to IV. 415. In the latter book, the passage 285-388 is omitted; and, in the preceding story of the Heliotrope and Tree of Frankincense, only the leading incidents are borrowed from Ovid; the translator considering that, for obvious reasons, he was justified in making the treatment of such a story entirely original.]

THE story got abroad, and spread the fame
Thro' all Achaia of the augur's name:
Pentheus, of Thebes the irreligious chief,
Alone withholds a reverent belief;
Presumes his words prophetic to despise,
And taunts him with the shame of sightless eyes.
The old seer shook his venerable head;
"Ah! it were well with thee, my son," he said,
"If thou wert blind and never doom'd to see
Of Bacchic rites the terrible mystery.
The day will come; the day is now at hand:
When a new god shall visit Theban land,
Unless to him due reverence be shown,
Thy riven limbs shall to the winds be thrown;
And in the green-wood women, frenzy-wild,
Shall shed the blood of nephew and of child.
So it *shall* be; for never at thy hands
Will he receive the homage he demands:
Then, when too late, wilt thou confess with me,
None are so blind as they that WILL NOT SEE."

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He spake: abuse is still the one reply:
Meanwhile, the prophet's words to verify,
Bacchus is come, and all the country rings
With jovial noise and festal welcomings.
Straightway, the novel rites to celebrate,
Worshipping crowds pour out thro' every gate;
Nobles and burghers, youths and maidens run;
Fathers and mothers and every mother's son.
Pentheus essay'd to stem the rushing tide:
"Sons of the serpent, are ye mad?" he cried:
"Things have, indeed, come to a pretty pass,
When trumpery tambourines and jingling brass,
When magic trickeries and the blast of horn
Make cowards of a race to valour born:
Can they who never flinch'd on battle-field
At clarion-blare, at flash of sword or shield,
Tamely give way before the silly shrieks
Of women, and a pack of drunken sneaks?
Greybeards, that sail'd across the trackless foam
With exiled gods from a far Tyrian home!
And you, my fellows in life's noonday glow,
What? yield you prisoners and without a blow?
No thyrsus should ye grasp, but sword unsheathed;
With helmet only should your brow be wreathed.
Bethink ye, of what serpent's blood ye boast:
He single-handed stood against a host:
Ye fight for fame; he fought to save his den:
Your foes are cowards; his were mail-clad men.
If Thebes must fall, then would to heaven it fell,
With hosts beleaguering its citadel;
Wretches, we should escape the coward's name,
Nor mingle with our tears the gall of shame.
But now, it seems, great Thebes must fall beneath
Soft hands, that never drew a sword from sheath;
Before a lad, skill'd only in the dance,
That ne'er bestrode a steed, nor wielded lance;
Wont to entwine with wreaths his perfumed hair,
And women's robes of broider'd gold to wear.
Give me a helping hand, and I'll engage
To probe his god-ship and his parentage.
Acrisius ventured, but the other day,
To close his gates, and drive the lad away:
My cousin's spirit shall I, Pentheus, lack,
With Thebes and all her soldiers at my back?
No! slaves, go, seek the impostor, every one;
Bind him and bring him hither: quick; begone!"
Grandsire, and brother and kinsmen vainly try
The king's infuriate mood to pacify:
Their warnings only kindle more and more

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Passion, alas! too passionate before:
So have I seen, with slow, majestic motion
A river roll unhinder'd to the ocean;
A river that, when vex'd with branch or stone,
Whirl'd into foam, and dash'd the fiercer on.
The messengers return, all black and blue;
Where Bacchus was, not one of them that knew:
"Still, to our lord," they said, "this one we've brought,
Whom in his service ministering we caught."
A handcuff'd wretch is dragg'd the king before;
A follower of the god from Tuscan shore.
Tho' loth the hour of torture to defer,
The king speaks, glaring on his prisoner:
"Wretch, in whose carcase, doom'd ere long to bleed,
A sobering lesson other fools shall read;
Tell me from whence yon drunken roysterers came?
What is thine own, and what thy father's name?
And what thy motive, by new rites to hold?"
The trembling captive thus his story told:—

THE STORY OF THE TUSCAN MARINER.

Akœtes is my name; I come
From over seas, and have my home
On far-away Mæonian shore:
The poor son of a father poor.
No flocks had this good sire of mine,
No meadows rich in pasturing kine,
No labouring ox; no, not a cow
To plough with, and no land to plough.
A scanty livelihood he took
From out the deep with net and hook.
As he lay dying on his bed,
He call'd me to his side and said:
"With mine own hands my bread I've earn'd;
A fisher's craft from me you've learn'd;
I leave you what was left to me,
A wide, wide heritage—the sea."
Meanwhile, I was determined not
To stick, a limpet, to one spot;
And so, by way of changing my lot,
I learn'd the craft of master-pilot;
Täygetè, the Pleiades,
Arctos and rainy Hyades,
All I observed, till I could tell
Where this star rose and that star fell;
I watch'd and watch'd, until I knew
The ways of every wind that blew,
And all the harbours in yon seas,
Where ship could moor or ride at ease.
For Delos bound the other day,
We veer'd towards Dia on our way;
Our ship of water had run short;
With straining oar we near the port;
A bump or two upon the sand,
And high and dry we tilt on land.
The night was spent: in eastern skies
The blushing morn began to rise;
I rose as well; and sent my crew
For water to a spring I knew:
Meanwhile, a little hill I clomb,
To see what airt the wind blew from;
Gazed all around o'er sea and plain,
Then piped all hands a-board again.
"Ahoy," Opheltes cried, "ahoy!"
As by the hand he leads a boy,
A beautiful boy with long, loose curls,
And skin as delicate as a girl's.
"Look," said he, "what a prize we've got;
A rich one for so poor a spot."
The child, from wine or sleep, or both,
Unable seem'd to move, or loth;
His reeling steps he scarce could guide,
And, walking, sway'd from side to side.
I scann'd his look and dress, and saw
What thrill'd me to the soul with awe:
"Messmates," I said, "there's something odd
About that child, that speaks the God:
He *is* a God; tho' 'tis a stickler
To say which one God in partic'lar.
My lord, whoe'er my lord may be,"
Said I with deep humility,
"To what these do, pray, give not heed,
But send us fair wind and god-speed."
"Thankee for nothing; dowse your prayers;
Mind your own eye, and they'll mind theirs:"

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Said Dictys, best of all our crew
Topsail to reef, or line to clew.
Our sandy-hair'd first-mate concurr'd,
Melanthus, with each jeering word;
So Prôreus, Lybis, Alkimedôn,
Coxswain Epôpeus; every one—
Be a man ever so sharp or wise,
The greed of gain will blind his eyes—
"Hands off: I'm captain here," said I;
"No skylarks, men, while I stand by:"
With that, the gangway as I block'd,
By Tuscan gaol-bird I was knock'd,
With one straight blow upon the neck,
Half-stunn'd and sprawling on the deck;
And, when he had me fairly floor'd,
The brute had pitch'd me overboard,
But by a piece of wondrous luck
In a loose coil of rope I stuck.
The godless set applaud the blow;
When Bacchus—for, of course, you know
The child *was* Bacchus and no other—
As if awaken'd by the pother,
In whimpering tones exclaim'd: "O dear,
Why, what on earth has brought me here?
What means this noise? what are you doing?
Good sailor-men, where are we going?"
"Cheer up," says Prôreus, "tell us where
You wish to land: we'll land you there."
Says Bacchus: "Then to Naxos, friend,
Be kind enough your course to bend:
There lies my home, and there you'll find
Welcome and entertainment kind."
By all the Gods on every sea
They swear that such their course shall be.
"Trim sail," say they: I turn the prow
Toward Naxos on our starboard bow:
Some wink; some whisper in my ear
Upon a larboard tack to steer;
"You lubber, sure, you understand,"
Say they, "the game we have in hand."
Aghast I stood, and horrified;
"Well, take the helm who likes," I cried;
"True, I can steer; but hardly care
To steer a ship to—heav'n knows where."
My honest words from all the set
A round of groans and curses met:
"You *are* a precious lubber, you,
To have command of such a crew:
Come, out of that!" Æthaliôn said;
"There's plenty here can take your stead:"
He spake; and, grasping helm in hand,
Put sea on sea 'twixt us and land.
Quizzing, as tho' he just were catching
A notion of the foul-play hatching;
Over the taffrail on the deep
The God stared out, and feign'd to weep:
"This is not, sailormen," said he,
"The kind of sail you promised me:
You lot of men—O, 'tis too bad
Thus to bamboozle one poor lad."
I all the while did nought but cry:
Laughing, their oars my messmates ply.
By him, whose godship I declare—
And better none by whom to swear—
The tale, I tell, in fact 's as true,
As 'tis to hearing strange and new.
Our vessel neither moves nor rocks,
But stands as firm as on the stocks.
Dumfounder'd, every oar they strain;
Hoist every sail; and all in vain.
Wreath'd ivy from each oar-blade trails;
And swelling clusters dot the sails.
The God himself, his temples round
With chaplet green of vine-leaf bound,
Is seen to wave a spear in hand
Enwreath'd with vine, a mystic wand.
Crouch'd at his feet, and glaring hard,
Lie spectral tiger, lynx, and pard.
With terror and bewilderment
Seized, overboard the sailors went.
And first with Medôn I observe
The form to shrink, the spine to curve.
"Why, what the mischief 's in the man?"
Said Lycabas; as he spake, began
His jaw to stretch wide, wider out,
His nose to flatten to a snout;
His hair and clothes sink slowly in,
And leave a shiney, hard, black skin.
Lybis essays to back his oar;
He sees his arm shrink more and more;
Till, loose from where the arm begins,
His shoulders flap two flabby fins.
One stretches out an arm to haul
A rope, and sees no arm at all;
Sans arms or legs, a shapeless trunk,
Flat overboard he sprang and sunk:
With each and all at lower end
Tails into moon-shaped crescents bend.
On every side they leap and splash;
Now, up they spring; now, down they dash;
Flashing to right and left they glance;
As in the figures of a dance;
And tumbling, frolicking in play,
From spouting nostrils snort the spray.
That morn we muster'd twenty hands;
Now on the deck but one man stands;
I stand alone; nor, in my dread,
Know where my heels are, or my head:

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"Cheer up," says Bacchus; "never fear;
Shift sail, and quick! for Naxos steer."
My lord, I scarce need say I did,
Right glad to do, as I was bid.

And now I've told my lord the reason,
Why here at this particular season,
I follow the new ways of thinking,
And go religiously in for drinking.

THE PUNISHMENT OF PENTHEUS.

"We gave a hearing to the maundering fool,"
Said Pentheus, "to give anger time to cool.
Off with him, slaves! pincers and rack apply,
Until the wretch has ceased to live and lie."
Forthwith, the pilot under numerous guard
Is hurried off, and in a dungeon barr'd.
But, while the deadly engines are preparing,
The fire for burning, and the steel for tearing,
The door, with none to open, opens wide;
With none to loose, the chains fall from his side.
The king persists; nor message further tries.
But now resolves to see with his own eyes.
Away to Mount Cithæron, where he knows
Are throng'd the worshippers, in haste he goes;
And, as he hurries, the loud, piercing cry
Strikes on his ear of feminine revelry:
And as a war-steed at the trumpet's sound,
Eager for battle, neighs and paws the ground;
So, as the noise came borne upon the gale,
The frenzied monarch turn'd with passion pale.
Cithæron's skirts are dark with forest-shade;
Midway, extends a smooth and treeless glade.
Here, as his eyes on secret rites intrude,
His mother, from the worshipping multitude,
Is first to spy him; is the first to run;
The first to hurl the thyrsus at her son.
"See, yonder is the boar! haste, sisters twain!
The boar, that roams the terror of the plain:
My spear must strike him." Madly they rush on,
And close him in, a hundred around one.
How tremulous now his voice; how meek the tone:
"Forgive me, O forgive the sin I own!"
The thyrsus struck him as the words he said:
Upon his aunt the victim shrieks for aid:
"Help, Aunt Autonoë, and pity take
Upon me for the dead Actæon's sake!"
For her, Actæon's name has lost its charm:
The suppliant wretch she seizes by the arm;
Inô the other grasps: the frenzied pair
Both limbs together from the body tear.
Poor wretch, he can no longer clasp his hands:
A shapeless trunk, in act to pray, he stands:

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"Look, mother, look! I am thy son, thy child!"
Agâvè looks, and howls with frenzy wild;
With aspect furious, and long locks outspread,
Off from the quivering trunk she wrench'd the head;
With dripping fingers lifting it, she cries,
"Mine is the victory, friends, and mine the prize!"
And e'en as autumn trees shed thick and fast
Their sere, loose leaves beneath the nipping blast;
So to the winds, aunt, mother, subjects fling,
Unnatural, the limbs of nephew, son, and king.

THE THREE SISTERS.

Such the dread warning; such the awful sign,
Whereby the God displays his power divine:
To the new rites the Theban matrons turn,
And willing incense on the altars burn.
Princess Alkithoë, impiously bold,
Allegiance from the God dares still withhold;
Denies him son of Jove: her sisters twain,
Impious, like incredulity maintain.
Meanwhile, old, blind Tiresias, seer and priest,
Proclaim'd to the new God a solemn feast;
Work of all kind to lay aside, he bade
Woman and girl, mistress and serving-maid;
The dappled fawn skin round the waist to bind,
To give their locks dishevell'd to the wind;
To wreathe the brow with vine-leaf; and in hand
To wield the steel-tipp'd, ivy-cinctured wand.
The God, he warns them, with a vengeance stern
Will visit such his festival as spurn.
Mothers and daughters hasten to obey;
Put baskets, wool, and broidery-looms away;
And, burning incense on the altar-flames,
Hymn praises to the God through all his names.

THE HYMN TO BACCHUS.

Hail! genial planter of the grape divine;
Hail! king of revels; giver of rich wine;
Nyctelius, Bromius, Eleleus, Iacchus,
Nyseus, Thyoneus, Liber, Evan, Bacchus;
Lord of the winepress, of the locks unshorn;
Dread son of fire; twice mother'd and twice born;
Youth everlasting unto thee is given;
The fairest face of all the gods in heaven;
For, when the horns of power are off thy brow,
As sweet and fair as fairest maiden, thou.

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In triumph thou hast march'd, where Ganges laves
Far off a swarthy race with sacred waves;
Two rebel kings thy majesty defied,
In their own blood to expiate their pride;
The Tuscan mariners, transformed by thee,
Frolicking dolphins, swim in their own sea;
The lynx runs pliant to thy gilded rein;
Satyrs and Bacchants follow in thy train;
Silênus, merriest of the merry pack,
Sways, staff-supported, on the ass's back:
The glad procession, ever as it comes,
Is heralded with boom of thundering drums,
With cymbal-clash, and fife's shrill-piercing noise,
And women's cries and shouts of laughing boys.
Thee, Bacchus, humbly Theban matrons pray
To them and theirs to bless thy festal day.

The sisters, heedless of the merry season,
When mirth is loyalty, and toil is treason,
Card wool, or weave it at the loom, or spin it,
Nor leave their handmaids idle for a minute:
Sister Leuconoë, drawing off the thread,
Up from her broidery look'd, and smiling, said:
"In silly rites, while others waste the hour,
We honour Pallas, a discreter power;
Still, as the threads our busy fingers ply,
A tale might serve to make the moments fly."
Applauding all, they bid herself begin:
She says: "I have, my memory stored within,
So many tales, i' faith,"—and very few
Were ever told but what Leuconoë knew—
"So many, that 'tis hard to single one:
You know, how in a pool by Ascalon
A Syrian goddess swims, Atergatis;
And how her empress-child, Semiramis,
Mistress of Babylon and queen of kings,
Coo'd out her life, a dove with silver wings:
And how a Naiad-nymph so sweetly sang,
That lovesick youths into her fountain sprang,
And swam and swam till they grew fishes glistening,
Evermore lovesick with continual listening;
And how the enchantress, wonderful to tell,
Be-sang herself into a fish as well:
And how a tree, blood-spatter'd long ago,
Got berries black from berries white as snow."
This chosen: "Well," she says, "the tale is new;
So, while my fingers fly, I'll tell it you.

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PYRAMUS AND THISBE.

A handsome youth and maiden sweet
Were next-door neighbours in one street,
Where with brick walls for want of stone
Semiramis built Babylon:
You might have search'd that city round,
Nor such a pair of faces found.
Ah! wretched Pyramus and Thisbè!
He would be hers, and she would his be,
But poking guardians interpose,
And spoil the whole thing with their *noes;*
But, that which guardians could not hinder,
Love burnt them both, as fire burns tinder.
Alas! they have no confidante,
No serving maid, no maiden aunt;
And, if they meet, when out a-walking,
They must not, dare not, stop for talking;
So all the fond things they are thinking
They tell with nods and winks, like winking.
The more 'tis tried their love to smother,
The fonder each grows of the other.
Now, when their houses first were made,
The mason ill had known his trade,
For in the wall, that join'd the two,
A chink was left the draught came through.
This flaw of careless architect,
Strange, that no soul should e'er suspect,
Until 'twas seen of each fond lover:
Well, well, what will not love discover!
Day after day this cranny through
The youth and maid would bill and coo;
And often as they stood or sat,
He on this side and she on that;
"O you ill-natured wall," they'd say,
"Why put your bricks in lovers' way?
O if you could but split in two,
For us to get our bodies through;
Or, if it 's too much asking this,—
Just wide enough for us to kiss!
Not that we are ungrateful, wall;
Better this chink than none at all."
When idly thus an hour or so
They've chatter'd, and 'tis time to go,
They whistle through a long-drawn sigh,
"Good-by, sweetheart!"—"sweetheart, good-by!"
Then blow a kiss through, each to each,
A kiss, ah! never doom'd to reach.
Aurora, opening up the day,
Has chased the stars of night away;
Her chariot-beams, as on they pass,
Of all its dew have robb'd the grass;
And at the wonted hour the two
Meet at their key-hole rendezvous.
When each in soft, low undertone
Of Fate has made the usual moan;
Says Pyramus: "At set of sun
Let's give our friends the slip, and run;
And, that no possible search may find us,
We'll leave the city far behind us;
And, lest on unknown ground we stray,
And lose each other and the way,
Our trysting-place the tomb shall be
Of Ninus by the mulberry-tree."
There stood, you may as well be told,
Close by a spring of waters cold,
This tallest of all mulberry trees,
White-fruited; mark the colour, please.
The waiting lovers thought that day
Would never, never pass away:
Still, it *did* pass; and as the light
Plunged in the sea, up sprang the Night.
When all the house was still and dark,
Love screw'd her courage to the mark;
And Thisbè, whilst her guardian slept,
Mouse-like down stairs on tip-toe crept.
With shawl and veil wrapp'd round her face,
Scatheless she reach'd the trysting-place.
Just then, red-reeking from fresh slaughter,
Came thither for a drink of water,
A lion, with a bloody nose—
Got in some hard fight, I suppose.
As he approach'd the water-side,
Ran Thisbè to a cave to hide;
But as in haste and fear she fled,
The shawl and veil fell off her head.
The lion drank; and turning found
A something-bundle on the ground;
Paw'd it, and sniff'd; then on the clothes
Deliberately wiped his nose;
Then stalk'd away into the night
Majestically out of sight.
Meanwhile, came Pyramus to the place;
He look'd; of Thisbè not a trace;
Deep-dented in the sand he saw
The print of a prodigious paw;
He shudder'd, and turn'd deadly pale:
But, when he spied the shawl and veil,
"Thisbè!" he cried, "he 's murder'd you,
The brute; no, not one brute, but two;
And of the two the bigger one
Was he, that sent you here alone.
The better-half of lover's twain
Is gone; why should the worse remain?
O all you lions, tigers, bears,
From hereabouts or anywheres;

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Come, one at a time, or come in batches,
And worry me all to rags and patches:
Stuff; when your coward *prays* for death,
He wastes, but dare not lose, his breath."
He spake; and towards the mulberry strode
With shawl and veil, a heavy load:
He kiss'd them; cried: cried; kiss'd again:
"Now, take," says he, "a second stain;"
And at the word his sword he drew,
And pierced his body through and through.
With dying hand, stretch'd on the ground,
He jerks the weapon from the wound:
Up spurts the blood from swollen vein,
And drips all round in drizzling rain:
Just so, when pipes of lead or leather
Burst from too sudden change of weather,
The pent-up stream, escaping, wets
Ceiling and wall with fizzing jets:
The spurting veins a deluge shoot
Of blood upon the neighbouring fruit;
The fruit assumes a purple hue,
And berries white turn black and blue.
The maiden's dread was not yet over;
Still, not to disappoint her lover,
She comes, and in the dim light tries
To find him with both heart and eyes.
When to the alter'd tree she came,
She wonders; "can it be the same?"
As thus she stood in fear and doubt,
At full length on the ground stretch'd out
She saw a pair of legs that quiver:
O'er Thisbè crept a goose-flesh shiver:
So o'er a sea as smooth as glass
Light catspaw ripples shivering pass.
But, when she saw *whose* legs they were,
She beat her breast; she tore her hair;
Her arms she flung his waist around;
With tears she bathed the gaping wound;
She knelt his cold, cold lips to kiss:
"Sweetheart," she cried, "what meaneth this?
Speak, Pyramus! speak! my own, awake!
Open those eyes for Thisbè's sake!"
At the loved sound the dull, glazed eye
Open'd a last time lovingly;
Then closed again: the drooping head
Fell back; and Pyramus was dead.
Meanwhile the fatal robes she spied,
The bare steel lying at his side;
"Ah! now," she said, "I understand;
Love slew thee, and thine own right hand.
I too can die, as died my dear;
Love too is mine; love knows no fear.
I come, sweetheart; so shall I be
Cause of, and mate in death to thee;
Death, that alone our hearts could sever,
Shall re-unite those hearts for ever.
Two boons I pray to us be given
By sorrowing friends and kindly heaven;
That death may grant, what life denied,
Us twain to slumber side by side;
And mulberry-trees may wear for aye
Mourning in memory of this day."
She spake; and bared her breast, and made
A plunge upon the reeking blade:
So Thisbè died: to this day still
The gods her dying prayer fulfil;
The ripe fruit keeps its mournful hue,
And in one grave sleep lovers two.

The tragic story told, ensued a pause:
Some gave, kind souls, a tear; all gave applause:
Awhile they wrought in stillness, but erelong
A sister breaks the silence with a song;
The tale most melancholy, but quite true;
All about love; and so, perhaps, not new.

THE HELIOTROPE AND TREE OF FRANKINCENSE.

Men are a fickle set, nine out of ten;
And gods have fickle hearts as well as men.
Apollo, steady in his car above,
May not be trusted in affairs of love;
His fancies flicker as the hues that play
On western cloud-banks at decline of day.
Poor simple Clytia knows or knew too well
How true the story I am here to tell;
The tale was old when yet the world was young,
As old and trite a one as ere was sung;

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And when, alas! the world shall have grown old,
Maids will love on, and lovers will grow cold.
This maiden, Clytia, so stories say,
Lived in a kingdom near the gates of day;
Oft, when the world was yet asleep and still,
Phœbus would stay his chariot on a hill,
And doff his coronet of rays, and go
To play the lover in the vale below.
And who like him could play a lover's part?
Who like Apollo win a maiden's heart?
His tresses, gilded with his own sun-light,
Fell loosely upon shoulders smooth and white;
His eyes were glancing with the fire of youth—
Too bright a fire for constancy and truth;
His fingers lightly o'er the strings could run,
Or curb the fiery coursers of the Sun;
His voice perforce would hold a listener mute,
The sweetest voice that ever sang to lute;
So, when a lover's part he chose to play,
No wonder maiden hearts were stol'n away.
Well; Clytia loved him, and he loved her too,
And maybe never would have proved untrue,
But, but—alas! these "buts" will ever slip,
For youth and maiden, betwixt cup and lip.
Not many leagues from Clytia's neighbourhood
The palace of an Eastern monarch stood;
A king, of a most ruthless disposition,
Without one virtue in his composition;
And blest, as heaven is sure such brutes to bless,
With a sweet wife of rarest loveliness;
No face with hers could in the realm compare,
Except her daughter's—which was twice as fair.
One morn Apollo had just left the plain
To climb the hill and mount his car again,
When at a distance, which to mortal men,
The sharpest-sighted, would be out of ken,
This paragon of beauty he espied
In a green meadow by a river's side
With her companions frisking like a kitten:
That very moment was the god's heart smitten;
That very moment Clytia's reign was over,
And young Leucothea won her first, last lover.
That day through startled skies Apollo's car
Whizz'd like a comet or a shooting star;
What way they pleased the fiery coursers sped,
For love had fairly turn'd the driver's head:
Now high above the zenith far they rose,
Now sank to melt the Pyrenæan snows;

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Some polar climes had twice their share of light,
And Æthiop skins were nearly frozen white;
The god was still wrapt in love-reverie,
When, two hours late, his car fell in the sea.
Laved by warm waves in the delicious west
Lie, emerald-green, the islands of the blest;
On one of these, the greenest of them all,
The wearied coursers of the sun-god stall;
They cannot slumber, but the toils of day
By food ambrosial are charm'd away.
His steeds and chariot in their resting-place
Apollo leaves, his journey to retrace;
And, swift as thought, stands in her father's hall
Beside the maiden, unobserved of all;
And thus he speaks in accents low but clear:
"Start not, dear maiden, at the words you hear;
Start not, lest others see, nor quit the spot;
But, listening, seem as though you listen'd not.
To me the steeds and car of light belong;
I am the lord of music and of song;
Tears may not dim the lustre of my face,
Nor age a wrinkle on my forehead trace;
Of all the goddesses in Heaven that dwell,
Or nymphs in woodland, forest, spring, or dell,
Not one of all but for my love and me
Would freely barter her divinity:
I swear, sweet maiden, by the powers above,
I'd freely give mine own to win thy love."
So spake Apollo, and the maiden heard,
All the while listening, not one single word;
For she had turn'd her at the first surprise,
And she had gazed into the young god's eyes;
And those low undertones had spread around
A wonderful, sweet witchery of sound;
And all the room in darkness seem'd to swim
Save one bright halo that encircled him;
And so, before his speech was yet half over,
Leucothea was as love-sick as her lover.
And then ensued what usually ensues—
Sweet meetings; sweeter, tenderer adieus;
And all the sighing, swearing, and love-making,
That make love so delicious and heart-breaking.
But just as things were going smooth as oil,
A whisper came the blissful plot to spoil:
Some say 'twas Clytia; and if it were so
(As possibly it was), I hardly know
Whether she merits more our blame or pity;
For jealousy, though just, is never pretty:
At all events, the king was made acquainted

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With the whole case, and nearly went demented;
His temper, bad with nothing to displease him,
Was horrible, when aught occurr'd to tease him;
But this was just one of those serious matters
That tore his temper all to rags and tatters;
For he had naturally been expecting
His child to take a mate of his selecting;
A dull, soft youth, heir to a neighbouring throne,
With face almost as ugly as his own.
The girl was called; the father was irate;
The daughter silent, meek, but obstinate;
The monster gave the word; that very night,
The girl was kill'd, and buried out of sight.
Next morn, arising from the Eastern wave,
Apollo gazed upon a grass-green grave;
At first, too stunn'd with horror to believe,
In doubt his brain was swimming until eve;
At eve he sought the wonted rendezvous,
But found, alas! no maiden sweet to woo;
The beating heart, he felt when last they parted,
Would beat no more, and he was broken-hearted.
The next day, and the next day, and the next,
Mankind with signs prodigious were perplext;
For, sans interposition of the moon,
His orb was pale and lustreless at noon;
And on his chariot, shorn of all its rays,
The dimmest-sighted might in safety gaze;
It seem'd as though beneath its lord's despair
The sun would melt and vanish into air;
He pray'd the gods Olympian every one;
All gave him pity; hope or comfort none;
He pray'd the inexorable Fates; in vain;
To god or man the dead come not again.
And so, when hope was gone, one early morn
The god look'd down upon that grave forlorn;
And, gathering all his rays together, shot
Them like an arrow down on the loved spot;
The dull, cold earth was warm'd, and deep below
The mouldering ashes felt a thrilling glow;
There passed three summer mornings, and behold!
A little twig was pushing through the mould;
It grew and grew, till, e'er the year was ended,
A tree its branches to the heaven extended;
The tree of incense, in whose perfume yet
Lingers the essence of a god's regret.
'Tis sad to die, when love is fresh and growing;
Sadder to live when love is gone or going:
For Clytia better far her rival's fate
Than to see love thro' coldness pass to hate:

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For now her ancient lover every morn
Pass'd overhead with look of bitterest scorn;
'Tis true his beams upon her face would fall,
But they descend indifferent on all;
And so day after day the maiden sate
Mute, uncomplaining, and disconsolate;
Sat there till she was rooted to the place;
And gradually all colour left her face:
And she grew thin and thinner every day,
As substance into shadow pass'd away;
At length was sitting, or seem'd sitting there
A filmy shape as thin as gossamere;
And by most slow degrees the shadow waned,
Till no distinguishable form remain'd;
Then dwindled down, until upon the green
A little, modest, violet flower was seen;
But still the flower turn'd to the sun above,
And to the new form clung the old, old love.

THE THREE SISTERS TRANSFORMED.

The stories close at close of day,
And still the girls work, work away;
With busy hands the day profane,
And Bacchus and his rites disdain;
When on a sudden the tinkling sound
Of viewless cymbal echoes round;
The tantara of horn unseen;
The boom of beaten tambourine;
And, scattering out a sweet perfume,
Float myrrh and saffron thro' the room;
And, miracle beyond belief!
The loom greens into ivy-leaf;
Part passes into drooping vine,
And where hung threads, hang tendrils fine;
The purple cloth takes cluster-shape
And lends its dye to paint the grape.
The day was spent, and set the sun;
The dubious hours were drawing on
Of intermingled dark and light;
The border-time 'twixt Day and Night:
A sudden quaking shakes the air;
The lamp-wicks all begin to flare;
The house is in a blaze, and swarms
With phantom-beasts and howling forms;
Thro' smoking rooms the sisters run,
The magic light and flame to shun.
But, while the maidens terrified
To nook and cranny run to hide,
Thin membranes gradually cover
Their shrinking limbs and arms all over;
On featherless, transparent wings
Each one in air suspended swings;
Each utters, as she tries to speak,
An insignificant, thin, shrill squeak.
Like them, a bat-mouse still, you'll see,
Prefers a house-nook to a tree;
And, hating sunshine, spreads his flight
On filmy wings by dim twilight,
When Vesper trims his lamp, and so
Is nicknamed Vespertilio.

D'Arcy W. Thompson.

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IV.—THE SCOTTISH UNIVERSITIES REFORMED.

I. GOVERNMENT.—II. FINANCE.

A FRESH start has been given to the Scottish Universities by the Act of 1858, and by the labours of the Commission therein appointed. The changes thus introduced have attracted considerable attention north of the Tweed; and we believe that they will not be uninteresting to educationists in the south. The Scottish Universities are, in many respects, peculiar institutions. Socially, they belong to no class in particular. They are distinctively institutions for the great mass of the people. We should, perhaps, best make a stranger comprehend their nature and position, if we described them as great training schools, in which men are prepared for certain professions—clerical, scholastic, medical, and legal. They cultivate and promote learning, only in so far as learning is required in these professions. The extent to which they encourage learning for its own sake is hardly appreciable. They make no such provision, that is to say, for supporting a large body of learned men, as we find in the English Universities. They are submerged, for the most part, in a flood of utilitarianism (albeit it is intellectual utilitarianism), in which scholarship, as such, can hardly find a resting place for the sole of her foot. They send out yearly hosts of men to what are called by courtesy the learned professions; they barely, and only exceptionally, recognise the profession of learning.

Neither the Act nor the Commission has materially disturbed this state of matters. They have left the Universities to discharge precisely the same kind of functions as heretofore; but they have sought to enable them to do their work better. They have at the same time, as we shall presently point out, provided some small outlets for higher scholarship. They have not ventured upon any fundamental or organic changes. From a Commission so characteristically cautious, and predominantly conservative, this was not to be expected. If they have erred at all, it has been in treating the Universities as institutions by themselves. They have not taken into account, to any considerable extent, their relation to the other parts of the educational system. But if they have not done all that the friends of University reform (to whose persevering exertions during many years the Act is mainly owing) could have wished, they have supplied the Universities with a well-regulated machinery, whereby the work of improvement may be gradually advanced. They have, at the same time, introduced many important changes, well worth the attention of educationists. In endeavouring to give our readers some idea of what these changes are, we shall consider them, *first*, as they affect Government and patronage; *second*, in their financial bearings; *third*, in connexion with graduation, and the curriculum preliminary thereto.

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I. Previously to the passing of the Universities Act in 1858, "the whole administration of the affairs of each of the Universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen was practically vested in the Senatus Academicus, who managed the property, superintended the discipline, and regulated the system of graduation." The Senatus Academicus, it may be necessary to explain, comprised, and still comprises, all the professors in the University, who are arranged, according to the different professional curricula, into four Faculties,—those of Arts, Medicine, Divinity, and Law. "In the University of Edinburgh, the Senatus Academicus possessed little power; and the functions which belonged to that body in the other Universities, were in Edinburgh performed for the most part by the Municipal Corporation of the city." The new Act intrusted the ordinary administration of the affairs of each of the four Universities to its Senatus Academicus. The party chiefly affected by this provision was the Town-Council of Edinburgh, whom it at once deprived of the control it had previously exercised over the affairs of the metropolitan University. Of the reasonableness and wisdom of this step there can be little doubt. A miscellaneous body of citizens, few of them with academic tastes or experience, and all of them elected on grounds widely removed from considerations of learning, were obviously not the men to regulate the teaching and control the course of study in a University. The exercise of patronage was at the same time perfectly safe in their hands. In spite of the political and ecclesiastical partisanship by which their elections were often characterized, their appointments to University chairs were generally good. Though supremely unfit to test the qualifications of candidates, they were quite fit to act as judges of the evidence laid before them by competent men. They were at the same time under the influence of, and amenable to, public opinion; and the will of a majority of the Town-Council generally meant the will of a majority of the best and most intelligent citizens. In proportion as an elective body becomes narrowed, and still more when its proceedings are carried on in the dark, does the danger of "jobbing"—a worse evil than open and avowed bigotry—inevitably increase.

The Act, however, did not wholly deprive the Town-Council of Edinburgh of their patronage. Instead of intrusting it, as in the other Universities, to the University Court—a body to be more particularly referred to presently—it transferred the patronage previously exercised by the Town-Council to a Court of Curators, consisting of seven members,—four nominated by the Town-Council, but not necessarily members of that body, and three by the University Court. The Town-Council thus through their representatives possess the largest share in University patronage; but all these Courts are close bodies; and as their decisions are generally announced as "unanimous," the public are rarely informed of the reasons which influence their selection.

The Senatus Academicus, however, by no means wield the supreme power in the Universities. That is vested in a body introduced into each University by the Act, and called the University Court. The powers of this body, as defined by the Act, are, to review the decisions

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of the Senatus Academicus; to effect improvements in the internal arrangements of the University; to require due attention on the part of the professors to regulations as to the mode of teaching, etc.; to fix and regulate the class-fees; to censure, suspend, or deprive a professor of office, or to require him to resign,—with the sanction of Her Majesty in Council; to inquire into and control the administration by the Senatus of College revenues. The position of the Court is further indicated by the fact that, by the nineteenth section of the Act, in them is vested the power of altering or revoking any of the rules, statutes, or ordinances of the Commissioners,—with the written consent of the Chancellor, and the approval of Her Majesty in Council. It thus appears, that while the University Court is, in the words of the Act and of the Report of the Commissioners, "a Court of Appeal from the Senatus," it is much more than a mere Court of Appeal. It has the power of originating and of carrying out improvements in the internal arrangements of the University; though, before doing so, it must communicate with the Senatus Academicus, obtain the sanction of the Chancellor, and submit its proposals to the University Council for their consideration.

The last of these provisions is one of the chief sources of influence of another body established in each University by the Act,—the General Council, consisting of the Chancellor, the members of the Court, the professors, and the graduates of the University. The institution of this general University body is one of the most important of the recent enactments. And this not only because of the influence which a body so constituted, and with such powers as it possesses, must exercise on University affairs, but still more on account of the new value which it attaches to graduation. Before the passing of the Act, graduation in arts had sunk to the lowest ebb in all the Universities, except in Aberdeen, where it had always formed the natural termination of the curriculum. This was, no doubt, chiefly owing to the circumstance that as no University privilege attached to the possession of a degree, few students cared to incur the trouble or the expense of graduation.

Now, however, that an academical degree no longer marks the severance of every tie between the student and his University, but rather attaches him to it by a real and permanent bond, the honour begins to be appreciated, and the aspirants to it correspondingly to increase. And this increase, we believe, is owing almost entirely to the value attached to the privilege of membership of General Council. Nor is the influence of the Council in the University unworthy of this high estimation. In the first place, it elects the Chancellor, who is the highest University functionary, and as such holds the ultimate appellate jurisdiction within the University. The Chancellor appoints an Assessor to the University Court, which gives the Council one vote indirectly in that body. The Council also elect a special Assessor to the Court; so that virtually they have two representatives there. The Council is further empowered to meet twice a year, and to take into its consideration "all questions affecting the well-being of the University." To give practical effect to its deliberations, it may further, whenever it sees fit,

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make representations on these questions to the University Court, "who shall consider the same, and return to the Council their deliverance thereon." Still further, the Act ordains, as already pointed out, that all improvements proposed by the University Court "shall be submitted to the University Council for their consideration."

Such are the powers which, to quote the words of Mr. Gladstone, constitute the General Council "the great organ of academical public opinion." It is important to remember these words of Mr. Gladstone's, because it may be recollected that the whole tendency of the able speech from which they are quoted was to limit very seriously, and, as it has turned out, very unreasonably, the Council's powers. There were specifically three things which Mr. Gladstone, as Rector of the University of Edinburgh, declared that the Council could not competently do. These were, to pass abstract resolutions, to appoint special committees, and to petition Parliament. Now it is noteworthy that each and all of these three things the General Councils have done, and that under the highest sanction. They have passed abstract resolutions, and their power to do so has been recognised by the University Courts. They have appointed special committees; and their power to do so has been confirmed by the Commissioners; for in their general Report they refer in complimentary terms to "a carefully considered and elaborate report, prepared by a committee of the General Council of the University" of Glasgow, on the subject of extended sessions in the Faculty of Arts. And lastly, the Council of Edinburgh University have petitioned Parliament, on the subject of the Parliamentary representation of the Universities, and their petition was accepted by the House of Commons, and its acceptance duly engrossed in the journals of the House. The whole question of the powers and privileges of General Councils has, owing very much to Mr. Gladstone's speech, been one of considerable difficulty in starting the Universities on their new career. The perplexities by which they have hitherto been hampered, seem to be fully cleared away by an admirable report on the subject prepared by a committee of the Edinburgh University Council, and adopted at their meeting in October. That report seems well calculated to give the Councils their true position as "the great organs of academical public opinion."

II. These constitutional changes were, for the most part, the work of the Act. In coming now to refer to the new financial arrangements, we reach the first of the subjects which chiefly occupied the attention of the Commissioners. Perhaps we shall best indicate the result of their financial labours by stating at once, that the permanent addition from the public funds, assigned by their ordinances to the four Scottish Universities, amounts to £8122 per annum. Of this sum, £5247 goes to augment the incomes of professors; and £1285 to pay for the services of assistant-professors. These sums are thus divided amongst the four Universities: St. Andrews gets £944,—the United College, £844, and St. Mary's, £100; Glasgow gets £475 for professors, and £650 for assistants—in all, £1125; Aberdeen gets

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£1260,—professors, £1025, assistants, £235; Edinburgh gets the lion's share, £3303,—of which £2903 go to professors, and £400 to assistants. This estimate also includes the salaries of extramural examiners, whom the Commissioners have wisely associated with the professors in conducting the examinations for degrees in arts and in medicine. Of these new examinerships there are twenty-one, making a further tax upon the public funds of £1590 a year. To these sums must be added, in the case of Aberdeen, an annual sum of £2446, given in compensation to seven professors whose services have been dispensed with in consequence of the union of the colleges there. Thus the new burdens which the Scottish Universities make upon the Treasury amount in all to £10,568, of which £8122 will be permanent.

Stated in the aggregate, these appear to be considerable sums; but when we consider the number of professors in the four Universities, or even the numbers who actually share in the augmentation, we shall find that it has gone no great way to remove the reproach of poverty from Scottish scholarship. It must be remembered, too, that the sum of £5247, allocated to professors, is by no means an absolute increase. Avowedly, it is partly given in compensation for the withdrawal from certain professors of their share in graduation fees,—in itself a very wise step. We do not know the extent of the diminution to be made on this account in St. Andrews and Aberdeen; but the Report informs us that in Glasgow it amounted to £400, and in Edinburgh to £700, per annum. The principle, moreover, on which these sums have been distributed puzzles us considerably. Taking, for instance, the University of Edinburgh, why should the emoluments of the logic chair, which the Commissioners found to be £520, be increased by £150; while the chair of moral philosophy, which they found worth only £400, has only £100 added to it? The chair of agriculture is worth £150, and the Commissioners add—nothing; the chair of chemistry is worth £1100, and they add £200; the chair of botany is worth £820, and they add £60. "Whosoever hath, to him shall be given; and whosoever hath not, from him shall be taken even that which he seemeth to have." This aspect of the Commissioners' labours has, however, already been so fully discussed in these pages,* that we need not return to it here. Our present purpose rather is to show to what extent the Universities have gained pecuniarily by recent changes.

The establishment of assistant-professorships in arts in Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen (three in each) is a gain which we readily acknowledge. The title is imposing enough, rather too much so either for the office or for the emoluments, which are no more than £100 a year. Surely professors' assistants, or simply tutors, would have been a more suitable as well as more modest title. In themselves, however, these posts will do some good. They will never attract the kind of men who should be either assistant-professors or professors' assistants; but they will operate usefully as prizes, which will enable a few graduates to prolong their connexion with the Universities, and

* *Museum*, vol. i. p. 480.

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will thus tend to cultivate in them a higher scholarship. Even nine such offices in Scotland are something to be thankful for in the midst of our long-prevailing dearth.

The institution of twenty-one extramural examinerships for graduation in arts and in medicine, at a cost of £1590 per annum, also forms a useful and timeous addition to the number of academical offices to which graduates may aspire. In another respect this is a wholesome reform. Sir William Hamilton long ago wrote "that an examination by professors exclusively—by all the professors of a faculty—and by professors left to their own discretion, and without even the obligation of oath, statute, or publicity, is utterly worthless as a criterion of competency in the candidate for an academical degree."* In this their new enactment, the Commissioners have simply carried out Sir William's recommendation of that "extra-professorial examination" which he held to be indispensable to redeem the Edinburgh degrees "even to respectability."

In connexion with bursaries—as the Scottish substitutes for English exhibitions and scholarships are called—the Commissioners have done greater service to Scottish learning than in any other department of their labours; and if they have here fallen short of what the friends of academic reform could have desired, it has been chiefly because of the difficulties they encountered. The powers conferred upon the Commissioners by the Act, in regard to "Foundations, Mortifications, Bursaries, and Donations" (xv. 2) were very large, but not larger than the abuses which had been allowed to creep into their administration required; and the opposition which, in discharging their functions, they encountered on this point was not more senseless and unreasonable in itself, than it was inimical to the interests of learning, and therefore to the designs of the donors of the funds in question. They found that, in most of the Universities, the funds destined for the encouragement of study were very considerable in the aggregate, but that they were in nearly every case frittered away in a large number of paltry pittances which students of any independence, of any self-respect, would feel themselves degraded by applying for. Scottish bursaries had become simple charities, so purely eleemosynary in their character that none but the absolutely needy could be brought to ask for them. This feeling was still further fostered by the mode of their distribution, and the extraordinary, in many cases absurd, conditions under which they could be obtained. Very few of them were, too few of them still are, open to general competition. Many of them are in the gift of private patrons, and require little else in the way of qualification than to bear a certain name, to have been born in a certain district, and to plead necessity. The consequence of all this was, that these foundations were less applied to the encouragement of sound learning, than to the forcing of unsound learning in those who, in many cases, would have fulfilled the end of their existence much better in other spheres.

The general tendency of the policy of the Commissioners has been "to diminish the number and increase the value" of these foundations;

* *Discussions*, p. 734.

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and, while leaving the larger portion of the funds as heretofore to be applied to the sustenance of students during their curriculum, they have wisely devoted part of them to the institution of "pecuniary rewards attainable by distinguished graduates in arts." The former continue to be called bursaries; to the latter the name of scholarships has been applied. Of these open scholarships, eight have been founded in Aberdeen, of the annual value of £65 each, and tenable for four years,—"to be awarded and held after graduation." In St. Andrews, there have been established, under similar conditions, two open scholarships, of the annual value of £60 each. In Edinburgh, three scholarships (one of them theological) were given to the University during the continuance of the Commission: two Pitt scholarships, value £60 a year each; one Mackenzie, value £120: and two Baxter scholarships, each worth £60 a year, have been added since the Commission expired. Glasgow alone, amongst the Scottish Universities, is still without these higher prizes; but she has a share in the Ferguson scholarships, which indeed are there competed for, though open to graduates of all the Universities: they are four in number, each worth £100, tenable for two years. Without doubt these are amongst the most important results of the recent University legislation. Had the Commissioners done no more than carry out these provisions, they would have been entitled to the lasting gratitude of Scotchmen.

As regards bursaries, it is to be regretted that they did not, or could not, carry their reforms farther. Two things, in particular, remain to be done in this respect: first, still further "to diminish the number and increase the value" of these bursaries; second, to throw all bursaries open to general competition. It is only thus that these encouragements to learning can have their full influence upon elementary education. At present, because of the unreasonable restrictions by which they are hedged about, and the misapprehension which consequently prevails as to their intent, this influence is at its minimum. But what an impetus would be given to the whole preparatory education of the country, were it understood that every youth might qualify himself—irrespective of rank, or name, or place of birth—to compete, not for eleemosynary aids, but for substantial and honourable prizes!

The value of the new chairs founded by the Commissioners, or with their help and countenance, will fall to be considered more fully under the head of educational changes. Here we may note that the Commissioners have established chairs of biblical criticism in Aberdeen and Glasgow, to be supported from the funds of the Deanery of the Chapel Royal. In the latter University they have also provided an endowment of £200 per annum for a chair of English literature; and have added a chair of conveyancing to the faculty of law, to be supported by an annual vote of £105 from the Faculty of Procurators of Glasgow. In Edinburgh, the chair of public law (in abeyance since 1831) has been revived, and endowed with £250 per annum; and the Commissioners have accepted Dr. John Muir's* munificent offer of £4000,

* Dr. Muir's munificence has since been fittingly acknowledged, by the Senatus conferring on him the degree of Doctor of Laws, and by the General Council unanimously electing him as their Assessor in the University Court.

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invested in Indian securities at five per cent., for the endowment of a chair of Sanscrit, and have added from the public funds £200 per annum as an additional provision for its support.

The last item which we have to notice under the head of finance, promises to be one of the most beneficial of the changes introduced under the provisions of the Act. It is that which provides for the retirement of professors incapacitated by age, or permanent ill health, for the performance of their duties. Next in importance to the adequate remuneration of efficient professors, must obviously rank provision for relieving the University from the incubus of those who, from whatever cause, have become inefficient. It needs not be pointed out how detrimental to all the classes in a curriculum, is inefficiency in a single department. At the same time, there is perhaps nothing so difficult as to convince a man of his own inefficiency. And even when willing to admit this, few men are so heroic as to throw up, in advanced years, their only means of livelihood, even to save the reputation of their *alma mater*. Both of these difficulties are now fortunately removed: the Act (xii. 5) empowers the University Court to require a professor to retire, when they deem the step necessary; and the Ordinances (9 and 26) provide for allowances—not on such favourable terms as the Commissioners wished to establish—being granted to retiring professors.

The present article has already exceeded its prescribed limits. We must therefore reserve the consideration of the important questions connected with graduation and the curriculum, as well as of the general results of the recent legislation, for another opportunity.

V.—POMPEII IN 1863.

Mr. Editor,—I have just returned to my hotel in Naples from a first visit to Pompeii; and now find that the subject of education in Italy (respecting which I promised to give you some information) is so entirely driven out of my head by the sight of this old Roman city emerging from the bowels of the earth after the lapse of nearly 2000 years, that there is nothing left for me but to sit down and write what comes first and freshest into my mind. I do not want to give you such information as one can pick up in all the ordinary guide-books of southern Italy; but rather to record my own personal impressions, and state a few facts not so universally known.

Now, first of all, what expectations ought we to form when we go to see Pompeii for the first time? What ought we to suppose will turn up to view at the wonderful apocalypse of this old city from under the ashes of Vesuvius? Pompeii had no doubt been the site of a considerable city from the most ancient times. The situation itself must, of all others, have invited early colonization. It lay on the shore of the loveliest bay in the world, with Vesuvius towering up behind, with the sea land-locked by the finest coast, and the distant prospect

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studded with rocky islands rising from the deep blue water in a thousand fantastic shapes. But fine as was the site, it was exposed, from time immemorial, to perpetual earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. The old town of Pompeii was nearly destroyed by one of these eruptions in the year 63 (that is just sixteen years before its final burial), and had then only just been rebuilt. Some of the large public edifices, particularly the great theatre, was still unfinished, and everything in the aspect of the place still exhibits traces of its having been recently reconstructed. Hence, in visiting Pompeii, we cannot expect to find an ancient *Græcised* town, such as it originally was, rising from the ashes, but what we may call a modern Roman town—one altogether belonging to the Augustan age, and presenting the peculiar features of that age only. Moreover, Pompeii was evidently not a town of the poor; not a haunt of the semi-Greek population of South Italy, but rather a town occupied by wealthy Romans, and well-to-do merchants or shopkeepers. What we should expect to find, therefore, in such a city now rising from its long burial, and coming once again into the light of day, are villas, moderate-sized houses, shops, taverns, temples, theatres, barracks, and such-like accompaniments of a flourishing Roman colony. We shall soon see how far these expectations are realized.

But first of all, let us go up to the walls of the town; for it should be well understood that Pompeii was surrounded by a very elaborate (and no doubt necessary) system of defences; these fortifications being carried to the height of nearly thirty feet, furnished at regular intervals with towers, and so thick even on the top as to admit two chariots to be driven abreast all round it. The walls of the city have fortunately been traced all round, except on the side of the sea-coast (where probably they never existed), so that its size can now be perfectly well ascertained, and the portion of it still undiscovered accurately estimated. A very good map of the place, too, has been recently published, and by comparing the portion of it which indicates houses and streets already laid bare, with the rest, I should say that not more than one-fourth of the whole town has yet been explored. The excavations already made began about the year 1748; from that time to this the work has been proceeding in a desultory manner. Sometimes, as under the French domination at the beginning of the present century, a great effort has been made—then again the whole thing has relapsed into comparative indifference; but, as I have just said, the net result of the whole century's labour has been to open about one-fourth of the whole town, so that we know not what vast treasures may yet be slumbering beneath the soil. At present there appear to be about fifty men engaged on the excavations, but these, I hear, are increased during the winter to four or five hundred. A tramway has also been constructed to carry away the debris; and I gazed with some amusement upon the strange vision of half-a-dozen railway baggage-waggons standing over the top of some of the old Pompeian abodes, and receiving the soil which had so long hidden and thus preserved the treasure they contained.

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The present Government of Italy, I am glad to say, are carrying into the excavation of Pompeii the same enlightened policy which they show in other matters. Signore Fiorelli, a man of first-rate ability and consummate knowledge of everything connected with Roman antiquities, has now the general superintendence of the works, and owing to him the whole plan of procedure has been greatly improved. Formerly, it was the custom to excavate a house for the especial benefit of some royal visitor, and then frequently to fill it up again with soil. Now, the soil is carefully taken away, and the exposed houses thoroughly cleaned out and preserved. Formerly, the excavations were begun from below, so that the overlying rubbish tumbled in, and carried ruin with it to many a precious object of antiquity. Now, the work is begun from above, the soil is gradually removed, and the houses are so excavated that almost every object is got at uninjured. The smallest thing that seems to savour of antiquity is thus carefully put aside and examined. If any objects of art are discovered they are packed up and transported to Naples, where they are thoroughly cleaned, and if injured, as far as possible restored. They are then numbered, classified, and placed in the National Museum, where every one can examine and study them at his leisure, without even the trouble of going out of the town.

One of the most remarkable examples of Fiorelli's tact and skill in dealing with objects of antiquity, is shown in the way in which he has been enabled to restore to view the bodies of those who were suffocated in the sulphurous fumes of the eruption. Comparatively few bodies have been found—a few hundred at most, those generally lying in the cellars, where they had evidently taken refuge from the burning ashes which fell in torrents upon the city. Contemporary writers have recorded, that when the eruption took place, great masses of the people were collected in the Amphitheatre, all of whom probably escaped; but beside these, a large proportion of the people who were remaining in their houses appear to have had sufficient warning to get away out of the reach of danger before the final catastrophe arrived. Still, with all this a number were left behind, and in the process of excavation the workmen not unfrequently came upon cavities in the soil in which human bones were discovered. Fiorelli conjectured that these cavities might be the remains of human bodies, and gave orders to the workmen not to break them through with the spade, but first to apprise him of their discovery. The next time such a cavity was found (which dates from about last spring), he made an aperture into it very carefully, and poured in a quantity of liquid chalk or plaster of Paris. After a time this became consolidated, the outer crust was broken away,—and behold a perfect cast of the body, with the clothes, ornaments and all, exactly as it lay in the agonies of death. It seems that the burning material formed a complete crust round those who perished on the spot; in process of time the bodies themselves became decomposed, and nothing was left but the skeletons. But strange to say, the inside of the cavity retained the exact form which those bodies originally gave it, and thus furnished a *complete mould*, from which

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the most perfect casts have now been taken after nearly 1800 years. The first cast thus taken was that of a man apparently of middle age. He was lying on his back, the mouth open; the breast and the stomach greatly swollen. The left arm is extended, the hand contracted, and on the little finger there is an iron ring. On the left arm and breast there are the marks of clothing, and when found the shoes were lying reversed on the thighs. The soles of the shoes are still visible, and even the iron nails which fastened them together. The nose and throat of the body are very plainly marked, and we can see, when we look into the open mouth, that some of the teeth were wanting. A few days after, the same process was tried upon two figures, which proved to be those of a lady and a young girl, probably mother and daughter. The mother was lying on her side. The face is not visible, but one of the arms is quite perfect, also the legs, and the girdle which went round the bosom. The younger one was lying on her face, all her limbs bearing the marks of great convulsions; the head half covered with ashes and stones; the right hand pressed against the mouth as though to avoid suffocation. The contorted attitude of the whole frame shows that the cast has taken her exactly as she appeared in the last cruel struggle on that fatal 23d of November, exactly 1785 years ago. We can see the very texture of the garments, the embroidery and the lace with which the arm was covered down to the wrist; the naked flesh upon the spine, and the embroidered slippers with the feet inside. The sight of these two figures raises a strange emotion of wonder and pity. It is true they died eighteen centuries ago, but still we see them before us human beings in their last agony. The effect is not that of a picture, or any mere imitation; we know indeed that their very bones, at any rate, lie before us, and the faithful concrete has so reproduced their dress, and the very muscles of their body, that we feel ourselves in the veritable presence of the scene of horror under which they succumbed. Strange that amongst the excavations of mere stone and ashes we should turn up not merely houses and vessels, and temples and statues, but that there should emerge from the blackened soil the most touching pictures of human suffering and emotion.

Fiorelli is now meditating additional expedients for hardening the ashes, cleaning out the cavities, and taking the figures with the utmost exactitude; and from those figures thus taken, he hopes to collect all particulars respecting the dress of the men and women of Pompeii at that time, and thus to enrich the pages of Roman Archæology with new discoveries. "I am sure," remarks Professor Settembrini, "that he will yet do great things in this respect. Since he has had the superintendence of the excavations of Pompeii, the order, the neatness, the discipline is remarkable in every way. Everything is preserved, everything treasured up, not a single stone of any significance is lost. The crumbled walls are now left untouched, while formerly they were carried off by the workmen, in order to show that a greater space has been excavated, and so to secure a greater reward. Where the doors existed, impressions are taken in concrete of the wood already consumed;—the broken vessels of whatever value are repaired, and the

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frescoes on the walls are covered with wax; which at the same time renders the colours more bright, and preserves them from future harm. No grass is allowed to grow in the streets; some hundreds of boys, girls, and women are employed in carrying away the earth without the slightest noise or confusion. In a word, the city of the dead is far better cared for than that of the living."

To the truth of this description I can bear my own personal testimony. In fact, nothing can now be more easy or more agreeable than a visit to the ruins of Pompeii. The place has been well enclosed; and there is simply a charge of two francs for every one who passes the gate. This payment enables him not only to see over the whole place, but entitles him also to a cicerone, whose business it is both to act as a guide and point out everything of importance which has yet been discovered.

I must confess that I was not prepared to find anything so complete, and, if I may so say, so natural as the appearance which the town presents. The soil has been so thoroughly cleared away wherever the excavations are completed, that there are no signs whatever of a buried city, but simply of a town which has fallen into disuse by some natural process of depopulation. You walk along the suburb just as you might along that of any walled town now existing; you enter the gateway—perfect, except that the gate itself has disappeared, —and you reach the main street. There is the pavement just as it was when the old Romans walked along it;—there are the marks of the carriages which rolled over it nearly two millenniums ago;—there on each side are the houses, the taverns, the shops, just as they stood in the year 79. You pass from one street into another, cross the stepping-stones which were placed to avoid the rain and dust in bad weather;—see the fountains from which the citizens drew their water; nay, you can even read the names written in red ochre over the doors; and occasionally the scribbling of some idle fellows who never thought that their writing would so nearly achieve immortality. In one street I observed the following particularly, written in a good bold hand:—*Otiosis hic non locus est, discede morator*,—a broad hint, no doubt, put up upon his wall by some industrious citizen to warn the idle fellows of his time not to lounge about the house and interrupt his business. Nothing, in fact, appears wanting, except for the dead to arise from under the ashes of Vesuvius, and to recommence their daily avocations.

But let me go now somewhat further into details, and record a few impressions which I picked up respecting the ordinary domestic life and manners of the Pompeiians. The first street you come to on entering the city is that which was devoted chiefly to the tombs of the wealthier families. It is obvious, at first sight, that a great deal of care and thought, and art, and expense was lavished upon these tombs. Some of them are highly elaborate, with a great deal of marble sculpture about them, and all contain inscriptions more or less legible. In the Museum at Naples, a vast number of these monumental tablets are now collected; and one may study amongst them the way in which affection for the

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dead was expressed, from the large, richly-wrought tablet of the wealthy, down to the little square memorial-stone of the poorer classes. Amongst these latter, I copied in my note-book the two following, as fair specimens of the rest:—

"Juniæ Fortunæ conjugi optimæ Sanctissimæ.
B. M. D. Junius Darius."

"Curtia nymphidia marito dulci T. F. E. Claudiano."

The form and structure of the Roman houses I need not describe. They are well known to all classical students, and may be seen more perfectly imitated in the Crystal Palace, where there is a fac-simile of one of the Pompeiian houses completely restored. I noticed that it was the fashion to write the name of the possessor of the house on the front. This was probably not so much the case with the larger and more elaborate houses, but was almost uniformly done in the case of those smaller houses which formed the streets of the town, and where some such distinction was of course the more necessary. I copied the following, which were scrawled rather than printed, in the same red paint as I have before referred to:—

"C. N. Helvium Sabinum Æd."
"Samellium Æd: juvenem."
"Licinium Faustinum."

The inner rooms of the houses were almost always decorated with paintings done in fresco upon the walls. In the larger and finer houses, these frescoes are of singular grace and beauty; in the smaller ones, they are often very moderately executed, being evidently the work of inferior artists. A vast quantity of these mural paintings have now been transported to the Neapolitan Museum, where they are classified according to the subjects. They nearly all consist of mythological representations, in which we recognise the various legends recorded in classical lore respecting Juno, Venus, Ceres, Bacchus, Hercules, etc., together with a vast number of nymphs, satyrs, and fauns. There are a few landscapes, but these are generally badly executed, and without any true idea of perspective, somewhat reminding one of the Chinese scenery executed on our common earthenware plates and dishes. The figures, on the contrary, and the expression of the faces, are singularly graceful and beautiful,—quite equal, in many cases, to the very best similar productions of modern times. Very rarely, in fact, do we find the walls of our modern houses graced with pictures and designs of equal beauty.

Ornaments for personal decoration are, of course, not to be seen at Pompeii, though large numbers have been discovered. In the Museum, however, there is a whole room devoted to them; and one is surprised to see, at the first view, how very little they differ from those which we are accustomed to use at the present day. Bracelets of all kinds are represented, the serpent pattern, with two or three coils, being amongst

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the most common. Cameos in large numbers exist, and might easily be supposed to have come only a few days ago out of any of the shops of Rome or Naples. Some of them, however, cut in transparent stone, and only properly visible by holding them up to the light, are, as far as I could judge, quite different from anything that has been executed in modern times. The rings much resemble those of the present day, consisting, for the most part, of some handsome stone set in gold or silver. Ear-rings and brooches are well represented, and clasps, the girdles of which have long ago perished.

More interesting, perhaps, than these, are the implements for domestic use, many thousands of which are collected in the rooms devoted to such articles. These are nearly all of bronze, and for a very sufficient reason. Everything constructed of *wood* either perished in the conflagration produced by the hot ashes which were showered upon the town, or has since rotted away; while all the iron articles have rusted, and are so eaten into and covered over with dirt and pebbles, that their shapes are hardly longer discernible. The bronzes, however, are almost as perfect as ever, and display the greatest variety of objects. You see presented almost everything that would be found in a good modern kitchen. Pots, pans, and boilers have been turned up almost without number. Water-jars and amphoræ of very elegant shapes appear to have been in general use. As to shape, indeed, all the domestic implements, even the very commonest, are superior in form to those used in modern times. One comes, indeed, in moving day by day amongst the objects and the art of the old world, to the inevitable conclusion that the æsthetic sense was far more highly developed under the old than it has ever been under the modern civilisation. Not only do we feel this in comparing the statuary of the old world with that of recent times, but we feel it in everything we come in contact with—in the columns, the mosaics, the vases, jars, tables, stools, designs for walls and cornices—nay, in every little article, however small, which was turned out of the hands of the ordinary workman.

Amongst the articles of domestic use, I may mention the following as presenting some degree of interest:—(1.) Common steelyards for weighing provisions. These are made exactly like our own, only that the æsthetic taste of the ancients has substituted for a mere rounded bit of brass, which is now generally used for the weight, a very handsomely made bust or other figure. On some of these weights, too, we read in very plain letters, *Eme et habebis*,—a harmless little joke, which was perhaps intended to put the buyer into good humour. (2.) Shapes for different articles of the table. Amongst these I noticed a sucking-pig, a fish, and a hare, very nicely formed in bronze. (3.) Graters and strainers, made pretty much like our own. (4.) Locks and keys. The interior of the locks was not visible, and the iron work a good deal corroded, but some of the keys are in beautiful preservation, and the complicated wards they present show that the ancients were no novices in the locksmith's profession. (5.) Another class of articles which one looks at with a good deal of interest are small bone counters, which are ascertained to have been pass-tickets for the

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theatre, dice, and knuckle-bones. That the common school-boy game of *debs* was known and practised by the Pompeiian children is manifest, not only from the number of knuckle-bones found in some of the houses, but also from a picture on one of the walls, in which some boys are represented playing with them in the usual way. Speaking of school-boys, I may also mention, by the way, that the sorrows of the rod were not unknown to them any more than to those of modern times. Just as we find different symbols of trade painted on the outside of many of the houses—(as a serpent to indicate a physician; two men carrying an amphora, a wine-shop, etc.)—so we find on one of them a rough drawing of a boy hoisted on the back of another, and the pedagogue standing with uplifted cane to give him his merited punishment. This was the way the Pompeiian schoolmaster wrote up "Seminary for young gentlemen." Whether it secured him many pupils we cannot of course tell.

Before I draw these illustrations of Pompeii to a close, I ought not to omit mentioning a few points and localities of special interest, some of which, too, have been recently discovered. The house which struck me more than almost any other was a baker's establishment, which has been restored to us with remarkable completeness. You enter first a court-yard, where is a rough kind of mill for grinding corn. In mechanical contrivances, the Romans, compared with modern times, were certainly deficient. The mill consists of a large stone set in solid masonry, and over it an upper stone, which turns upon a pivot. This upper stone has several holes round it for the insertion of levers, and either slaves or donkeys were then employed to turn it,—exactly in the same way as our sailors turn the capstan in order to heave anchor. In a yard close by was found the skeleton of the unfortunate ass which our good baker employed to turn the mill I am now describing. In some vessels hard by was found a quantity of grain, which has now been taken to Naples, and may be seen in the Museum. You then enter another out-house, and there is the oven. When the house was first dug out, the oven was found closed at the mouth, and, on opening it, an entire batch of bread was discovered, every loaf as perfect as when it was made. The loaves are about the size of a half-quartern, almost perfectly round, consisting of two pieces of dough (like our cottage loaves), having a dint in the middle, and several notches all round, cut with a knife, just as we see them in the present day. Fifty or sixty of such loaves were taken out hard and black. They were evidently being baked when the eruption took place; and little did the baker think that the batch, intended for the next day's consumption, would only be drawn after they had stood in the oven for 2000 years.

One of the most beautiful and perfect of all the excavated houses is that which served for the public baths. A more perfect bathing establishment could hardly be conceived. There are the arrangements for hot and cold water, the dressing-rooms, the pegs for hanging up the clothes, everything, in fact, which luxury could dictate for making the bath as elegant and agreeable a recreation as possible. Just opposite, on the other side of the way, is a pastry-cook's shop, where the citizens

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were no doubt accustomed to regale themselves after the morning or evening ablutions.

It seems strange to us, in the present day, to walk through a town, as complete as this, and never to find a single trace, either in the pictures, statues, tombs, or public buildings, of any single Christian idea. All bears the stamp of heathendom, with its material beauty and its moral degradation. The religion of the age is, however, largely represented in the numerous temples which have been brought to light. Amongst these we find the Temple of Jupiter, the Temple of Venus, the Temple of Mercury, the Temple of Neptune, the Pantheon, and, perhaps the most interesting of all, the Temple of Isis, with the symbols of Egyptian worship, and a large number of implements used by the priests. In one of the rooms were found the skeletons of some of these priests, and the remains of the dinner, consisting of fish, fowl, eggs, and wine, with which they must have been regaling themselves at the moment when the city was buried under burning ashes. A secret staircase is still visible, by which it is supposed that the priest introduced himself behind the statue, in order to give forth oracles to the people.

Amongst the municipal buildings, the largest and most magnificent is the Forum, paved entirely with marble, and surrounded with handsome Doric pillars. Here the legal tribunals and all the political gatherings were held; and from the vast size of the place, I should suppose that it might have contained a very large proportion of the citizens. I should hardly think that any town in modern Europe contains at the present time a place for legal, political, social, or commercial transactions which, in size, magnificence, and artistic beauty, could be compared with the Forum of this *third-rate* Roman municipality in its perfect state. The Basilica, close by, is on a similar scale of grandeur. The centre was open to the sky, and surrounded with peristyles formed of magnificent Ionic columns. At the end is the tribune for the judges, elevated considerably above the floor, and around the walls one can still remark the scribbling of the young lawyers and advocates, with which they wiled away the time while waiting for their several causes to come on. Notices of gladiatorial exhibitions are also found on the walls, of which this is a specimen—"N. Festi Ampliati, familia Gladiatoria pugna iterum pugna xvi K. Jun. venat. vela." The *venat. vela* at the end appears to announce that the amphitheatre would be covered with an awning, so that no harm can be taken from sunshine or rain. Three theatres have been discovered—one a large one, capable of holding about 5000 people; another, a small one, adapted for about 1500; and, at some little distance from the town, an immense amphitheatre, formed according to the ordinary well-known model, and designed for gladiatorial combats.

I have now gone very cursorily through some of the points which have most struck me on my first visit to Pompeii, and to the Museum, where its curiosities have been deposited. These points, I need hardly say, lie quite on the surface of observation. The whole field is so large, and the number of objects so vast, that any one who wishes to master the entire question of Roman antiquity, as revealed by this

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wonderful resurrection, ought to live on the spot for months, and compare all he sees with the literature and history of ancient Greece and Rome. Many visits I hope yet to make to these relics of the old world; but first impressions are sometimes the most vivid and real, and these I have wished, as far as I could, to convey in the few pages I have now hastily jotted down. Whatever belongs to human nature as this world presents it, this we find revealing itself at every turn exactly as it does in the present day. The virtues, the vices, the passions of humanity, all take the same colours, and seek for satisfaction in the same way. Here we find the lover scribbling on the wall that he prefers his mistress to immortality itself—

"Ah, peream, sine te si Deus esse velim."

And another praising the fair complexion which has enchanted and enchained him, writes—

"Candida me docuit nigras odisse puellas."

While a third wag writes above it—

"Oderis et iteras . . .
Scripsit Venus physica Pompeiana."

The love of humour, in fact, crops out frequently amongst the scribblings of Pompeii. One fellow says, that under the consulate of L. N. Asprenas and A. Plotius, he had an ass born to him; while some poor, hard-working slave has drawn a rough-looking donkey turning a mill, and writes underneath it—

"Labora, aselle, quomodo laboravi
Et proderit tibi."

An epigram, by the way, far more suited, I should say, to modern Italy than to ancient.

Occasionally we find that some one has recorded his hatred or contempt by scribbling up injurious epithets—

"Appi Embolari, fur, furuncule."
Take notice that Appius is a rogue and thief.

And then again, we find the love of decency peeping out amongst a sad array of the contrary, where some respectable citizen, better versed in household propriety than in orthography, has written upon the wall, "Abiat (for habeat) venere pompeiiana iradam, qui hoc læserit."

But when we turn from those qualities of mind and habits of life which belong to human nature as such, and regard the expression of ideas and opinions, what world-wide distinction do we then find between the ancient and modern civilisation! Monotheistic and Christian ideas here have their play; the groundwork out of which our deeper thoughts and feelings spring, seems altogether shifted from its old foundation, and the little sect which was just struggling amidst a thousand obstacles for existence when Pompeii was overwhelmed, has now spread the wide world over, and moulded the forms of our European society into a new, and, let us hope, an improved form. Those ideas, indeed, we now see in South Italy, still mixed up with a vast amount of the old Roman polytheism. The Madonna has taken the place of

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the *lares* and *penates;* and the religious symbolism, which we see so perfectly represented in Dante, has still about it the reflexion of the old conceptions of Tartarus and Olympus. But humanity has, nevertheless, been placed on a higher pedestal. The purer ideas and nobler virtues of our nature enter more or less into the popular faith; and we can look forward to the time when the more rational and divine elements of that faith shall attain an ever stronger growth, until they overcome one by one the evils under which we still groan, and the sorrow and sins we have yet a while to combat.

J. D. Morell.

Naples, *Nov.* 1863.

VI.—READING AND SPELLING;

Considered with reference to the Revised Code.

In good Reading, we look for the following qualities: intelligence, correctness of pronunciation, distinctness, a firm and audible tone of voice, a deliberate utterance, some freedom of modulation, and fluency. Reading is intelligent, when it expresses the sense of the passage read: correct in pronunciation, when all the vowels have their proper sounds: distinct, when each word and each syllable has its full sound: firm and audible in tone, when it can be clearly heard over a room of moderate size, for example, the class-room: deliberate, when the several words and phrases are uttered without haste, and the several pauses in the sense observed, so as to enable any one who is listening to follow the reader: modulated in expression, when the several phrases are distinguished from each other in the utterance, and are expressed in that variety of intonation which we use when we are speaking: fluent, when the reader is so familiar with the words as to utter them without hesitation or stammering.

Before speaking of the method that should be adopted in teaching reading, we must mention two preliminary qualifications in the teacher, which are of still more importance:—

The one is, that he shall be fully convinced that good reading is necessary not only to his pupils' future welfare in life, but to all their subsequent education. If they can read well when they leave school, they will have a taste for reading, which will lead them to carry on their own self-improvement afterwards; if not, then, since no one cares to do what he cannot do well, they will probably give up the practice of reading, and take their place in the ranks of the illiterate. So far, therefore, as intellectual instruction is concerned, the most important part of the teacher's work is to teach his pupils to read well.

The other qualification is a suitable temper for his work. Great patience and good-nature are needed in dealing with children, particularly in the early stages of their learning, to bear with their errors and

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their slow progress in what seems very easy, and to be always encouraging them in their efforts.

If he have these qualifications, the exertions he will feel himself disposed to make on their behalf, and the interest with which he will invest the task in their eyes, will of themselves go far to insure his success.

Indirect means of attaining an end are often not less powerful than those which are direct, and the teaching of reading is an example of the fact, from its earliest stage to its latest.

The progress of the pupil in his first attempts in reading will be much more rapid if he has previously acquired, by means of familiar conversation, a considerable acquaintance with spoken language. For, on the one hand, he knows for certain the sense of the words he uses in speaking; and on the other, since his first reading-lessons, if judiciously constructed, will comprise all these words, his labour in reading is reduced to the mere recognition of their forms by the eye, and the association of their sounds with these forms, a task which is made very much easier by his knowledge of their sense. This connexion between speaking and reading suggests several important considerations for the guidance of the reading-lessons: *e.g.*, that if the pupil comes very young to school, he should be largely engaged with conversational lessons to prepare him for reading; that the first reading-lessons should be descriptions of familiar animals and objects, on which a child's conversation naturally turns; that the reading-lesson should generally be introduced by a short conversation embodying the new words, and should be followed by an examination on its subject, for this reason among others, to ascertain that the child can employ its phraseology intelligently in the manner of conversation.

Then in his advanced reading-lessons, the pupil will read well or ill very much as he speaks well or ill: if, *e.g.*, he is in the habit of speaking deliberately, or distinctly, or with freedom of modulation, he will carry over these qualities into his reading, at least he may be made to do so with comparatively little trouble. So that the teacher would act wisely in carefully cultivating on his own part—and therefore on theirs, for they will imitate him—a good style of speaking, not in the course of his instruction alone, but in his whole intercourse with them.

The first quality of good reading is, as we have seen, that it be intelligent, *i.e.*, that it express the sense of the passage read. Whether it does so or not, depends primarily on the intelligence of the reader, as enabling him to apprehend the sense of what he reads; and this, again, will depend on the degree in which it is cultivated in the course of school instruction as a whole. Only when it is so cultivated can we hope to carry out in practice the specific rule, that "to secure intelligent reading we must accustom him to consider the sense of what he reads." With regard to the reading-lesson in particular, this rule requires us to examine the class, whenever the nature of the lesson admits of it, on its subject matter and language, with the view of supplying any defects in their understanding of these; it plainly suggests, moreover, that the final

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reading of the lesson should be heard not before, but after, this examination.

Reading, as an art of expression, is, in all its stages, acquired mainly through imitation.

The pupil cannot otherwise learn the sound to be attached to any word-form at first than by hearing it uttered, and then imitating it. Many teachers, it is true, instead of telling him the sound at once, make him spell the word, and then associate the sound with the spelling (the alphabetic method); whilst some prefer to make him utter the sounds of the several letters composing the word, and associate the sound of the word with these (the phonic method); but in either case it is still by hearing and imitating the sound of the word that he learns it. And, keeping in view that our object is to teach reading, and that alone in the meantime, that method seems the best which interposes nothing between the model and his imitation of it; if the imitation is not more accurate, it is at least effected in less time. The spelling of words will be better learnt otherwise, and, as for the sounds of the letters, they are of value only as leading to the sound of words; so that if the latter can be learnt more quickly without their intervention, they become an obstacle rather than an aid. This method would seem at first sight to enable the learner to read only the words he has been told. Yet nothing is more certain from experience than that the child, as a rational being, carries on for himself a process of observation and comparison on what he reads; that he applies what he learns to-day to what he reads to-morrow; in short, that each reading-lesson gives him not only the knowledge of so many more words, but an increase of reading power. This mental process the teacher may aid by requiring him to utter together such words as rhyme, or otherwise resemble each other in sound; but he should be very careful not to perplex it by the intervention of too cumbrous an analysis.

For the first step in reading there should be set before the class tablet-lessons, each containing a few sentences constructed of three or four monosyllabic words, and printed in large character, so that the reader's eye may not be distracted; these the pupils should be made to repeat individually and simultaneously, by words and by sentences, at the dictation of the teacher, with sufficient frequency to impress them on the memory, and their knowledge should be tested by the teacher thereafter requiring them to read different sentences constructed out of the same words. The next series of tablet-lessons should contain longer sentences and also paragraphs, still of monosyllabic words, but in smaller characters, and embodying, along with the new words, the words previously read; these are to be taught in the same way, save that the teacher has to tell the new words alone, and to collect (if it is not done for him in the lessons themselves) the rhyming words for consecutive utterance. The next step is the first reading-book, which should contain all the above lessons to begin with; so that the reader may not be troubled with new words while he is overcoming the difficulty peculiar to this step, viz., the following the order of words on a printed page. Only when he has overcome that, should he proceed

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with the new lessons in his reading-book, to be taught in the same spirit as the tablet-lessons, with the sole difference that each pupil has now the lesson before himself. Each step should embody all the words of the previous steps along with its own new words; and each should be thoroughly mastered before the pupil is allowed to leave it.

Expression, equally with pronunciation, should be learnt by imitation. The teacher should therefore study to read well himself, and make a point of reading much to his class, carefully exemplifying each of the qualities he wishes them to acquire. Too often the reading-lesson consists in merely hearing the class read and correcting their errors, or, still worse, requiring the reader to read again and again in the hope of his correcting his own errors. In this way, the errors are only the more deeply impressed from frequency of repetition, and the class, from want of a better example, imitate the bad one which they set to each other. Instead of this, let the teacher habitually read over the passage, sentence by sentence, which he wishes any pupil to read, and then have it read in conformity to the model, so that it may be his own example, and not that of any one of their own number, that his pupils shall be most familiar with. The lesson may be repeated, without his reading, as often as he deems necessary, for the sake of practice; but even then, when any passage is not read to his satisfaction, instead of wasting time by trying to have all the errors corrected by the class, let him again show the class how it should be done, and require the reader to imitate that.

Such being the power of imitation, the sooner it is called into use the better; for it is freer and more observant, the less it is hampered by acquired habits of speech. The junior classes, therefore, should not be neglected, as is often the case, because they are young; they should rather, for that very reason, be the more carefully watched.

Besides having a good and sufficient example set them, the class must have an adequate amount of practice in reading; in respect to which the chief points to be noticed are these:—

(1.) Reading should be made the subject of distinct lessons, and not thrown into a subordinate place in the estimation of both teacher and pupils, as it virtually is by the common way of connecting it always with grammar or explanation. The recitation of learnt passages, amongst its other merits as a school exercise, accustoms both to attach importance to the art of expression.

(2.) One reading-lesson daily is not enough; there should be two at least, and of adequate duration.

(3.) The reading-books should be adapted to the wants of the class, in respect both of style and of subject-matter, that they may feel some interest in their reading.

(4.) It is a matter of common complaint that the elementary branches are taught in school in too technical a way, that is, with too little application to the actual wants of life. This fault shows itself in teaching reading chiefly in two ways:—

First, School reading is generally confined to single sentences, whereas reading for practical purposes requires to be conducted at

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large. A pupil may be able to read one sentence fairly, and yet want the firmness and the freedom of modulation requisite to read a continuous passage with effect. He should therefore be accustomed in school to read by paragraphs.

Second, School reading is too exclusively confined to reading-books constructed with a special purpose; so that, however good they may be, his vocabulary and phraseology are not sufficiently varied. To remedy this defect, the teacher should use with his more advanced classes some book of general interest, from which one may read in turn to the others; if this be done once or twice weekly, and some composition exercise be connected with it to secure attention, they will not only acquire facility in reading continuous narrative, but the power of intelligently following it, which is not less necessary.

If the teacher is in the habit of reading to his class by way of example, less time will be required for the correction of errors than commonly is, for there will be fewer errors made; all the fewer, the greater power he has of sustaining their attention. Still there will be some. In the case of younger classes, these should be corrected when they are made (unless the sentences happen to be very short), while the perception of them is fresh; and it is better, as a rule, that the teacher correct them himself than ask any of the class to do so. He should, however, have the sentence read over again.

In dealing with advanced classes, the chief points to be observed are these:—

The teacher should not confine his attention to the mis-pronunciation of single words, but apply the appropriate remedy to the several faults of expression, regulating, *e.g.*, a slower and more forcible utterance of the syllables and words when the reading is indistinct, a more marked attention to pauses when it is too quick, a more expressive grouping of words into their phrases, and a greater variety of intonation when it is drawling and monotonous, and repetition when it is wanting in fluency.

The errors should not be noticed either by teacher or pupils, either by word or signal, till the reader has finished his portion, so that each may be accustomed to read without interruption, and have his reading estimated as a whole. Then the class may be asked to point out such errors as are fairly within their observation, leaving the rest to be dealt with by the teacher himself.

Errors must be corrected effectually, so that they may not recur in the class. In connexion with this, when any particular fault is prevalent, such as indistinctness of utterance, or too great rapidity, or harshness of tone, the teacher will find an occasional resort to simultaneous reading advantageous; though he should not indulge in it too much, as faults of other kinds may grow up under cover of it.

Faults cannot be corrected unless they are noticed, and it is certain that many faults are not noticed owing to the teacher following the reading with his eye. For he knows what the reader should be saying, and is therefore apt to assume too easily that he is saying it. Let him rather follow the reading without book. Thus dependent on his

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ear alone for the sense, he will find himself compelled to stop every reader the moment the reading becomes indistinct, inaudible, hasty, or unintelligent, and to remedy the defects, whether they arise from the posture and attitude of the reader, or from his manner of utterance. The truth of this is so apparent, that it would seem hardly deserving of being insisted on; but the almost general neglect of the precaution makes it necessary to lay stress on it by saying that, if steadily acted on, it would purge school reading of a large proportion of the faults now charged against it.

Spelling.

A knowledge of spelling is valuable mainly for the purposes of writing.

It is not to be acquired by the learning of rules, whether for the sounds or for the formation of words (which have far too many exceptions to make them reliable guides), but by the eye becoming familiar with the forms of the individual words. The child of quickest observation will, therefore, learn to spell soonest; but, other things being equal, spelling will be the more quickly learnt, the more frequently the learner meets words, and the more interest he feels in observing them. From which the following conclusions result:—

(1.) That spelling is naturally learnt through the medium of reading.

(2.) That the more intelligently, attentively, and frequently the child reads, the sooner will he learn to spell, since the forms of the words will be the more deeply impressed on his memory.

(3.) That spelling should be kept abreast of reading, and will in vain attempt to outstrip it.

(4.) That spelling should not be called for in the very first stage of the child's reading, as his eye is then only becoming accustomed to the forms of the simplest words.

(5.) That the old plan of presenting to the learner columns of isolated words for spelling is quite unsuited for the purpose.

The pupil must be daily examined to secure that he is properly using the means of learning, and to afford the teacher the opportunity of giving him that assistance which he requires. This examination must be a process of practice and correction conjointly; and it will be effective, according as the practice is extensive and the correction thorough. No process has been devised for the purpose so effectual as the writing out of prepared passages. The oral spelling in common use in schools is obviously defective in both of the essential requisites, as its results have abundantly shown. At the same time written spelling will not only be useless but even prejudicial unless conducted with strict regard to the following conditions:—

(1.) The passage selected should be instructive and interesting in itself, the better to fix the pupils' attention on its language; and it should be taken from the ordinary reading-book of the class, to secure that it be adapted to them in point of difficulty, and that they understand what they are to write.

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(2.) It should be specially prepared beforehand, either by their repeatedly reading it and noting the more difficult words, or by their writing it out at home.

(3.) When it is dictated in school, the teacher should read, not word by word, but according to the sense, in clauses to suit the capacity of the class, distinctly, but without undue repetition, so as to encourage attention, never allowing the class to write till he has finished reading the phrase, or to utter a word of inquiry or remark during the whole exercise.

(4.) Written spelling may be with much advantage performed from memory, so that it need not be omitted on the plea that the teacher cannot find leisure to conduct it. The passages learnt for recitations in the several classes will serve this additional purpose well, so far as they go, and they should be written out beforehand as well as learnt.

(5.) The exercise should be written, in the case of all but the youngest classes, in a copy-book, to secure care in the writing, and to admit of adequate correction and future revision. Neatness should be encouraged, for the sake both of the spelling and the handwriting; scribbling injures both.

(6.) Thorough correction and revision of errors are indispensable to the utility of the exercise. Correction is obviously best performed by the teacher (or assistant, as the case may be) taking home the exercises and correcting them individually, and requiring the pupils to copy out the corrected forms of their misspelt words at the bottom of the exercise some time before proceeding with the next. If he find this way of correcting impracticable from want of time—though as a rule he should not—he may read over the passage aloud at the end of the exercise, and spell all the words in which he thinks there is any probability of error, making the pupils correct their own, or their neighbour's exercises, as he may prefer: some errors will occasionally escape notice in this way, but there is no better practicable in the circumstances.

(7.) Revision of work is best effected by means of the error-exercise. At short intervals, as errors accumulate, an exercise should be given upon them, in which the corrected forms are written several times over in so many columns to impress them on the memory; each pupil taking his own errors as the subject.

(8.) The exercise need not occupy more than twenty minutes in writing, daily if practicable, in any case not seldomer than thrice a week.

(9.) The matter of punctuation (including capitals) is one which it belongs to grammar to explain, and not to spelling. The pupils must be required to attend to this both in their home-copying and in their school exercises, so far as they have been made acquainted with it; so that they may not acquire the habit of writing without any regard to it.

(10.) It has only further to be added, that the teacher must be on his guard to prevent the exercise from being vitiated by the habit of copying.

The junior classes, though they do not write on paper as above, have nevertheless a species of dictation-exercise peculiar to themselves. They should be accustomed to write down on their slates, as soon as they can form the letters freely, a variety of simple exercises, *e.g.*, easy

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sentences on common things, such as their first reading-lessons contain, copied out in the first instance, but afterwards written from memory, and lists of words which they have become familiar with on the blackboard in their oral lessons, such as the names of things in the school, animals they daily see, vegetables in common use, names of the common colours, forms, numbers, etc.

In the written spelling of the more advanced classes, their knowledge of words apt to be confounded should be tested by exercises specially constructed for the purpose. The teacher will find it convenient to have a spelling-book for his own use to suggest those words which sound alike but are spelt differently, and to furnish him with convenient sentences, otherwise he must frame them for himself. These should not be given, however, till there has been repeated opportunity of noticing such words individually in course of the ordinary dictation exercises. The exercise in writing lists of words, so useful in younger classes, may be continued with much advantage, from the great intelligence it calls into play, provided only the classifications employed rise in difficulty to suit the capacity of the class. In connexion with their general knowledge, they may be required then to write down such lists, as parts of a ship, or of a railway, instruments used in agriculture or in any particular manufacture, and so on: in connexion with their knowledge of words, the family of words derived from one root; the words of the language that express the various phases of some particular notion, as motion, rest, thinking, size, shape, etc.; and lists of synonymous words. These exercises must be conducted and corrected like the ordinary dictation exercise.

Oral spelling has hitherto been the most common form of the spelling exercise; it has not been well used, however, chiefly because, instead of being used as a subordinate to written spelling, it has been itself exclusively relied on, but in part because it has been in the habit of dealing with isolated words alone. As an adjunct to writing, it is not without utility, from its affording a variety of exercise, and from the facility with which it can be employed; but it should be given in close imitation of the method of written spelling. Thus, when taken in connexion with the oral lessons of the younger classes, it should deal with the words denoting common things, qualities, or actions, which these lessons explain to them, and which are written down on the blackboard. When connected with the reading lessons, either of junior or senior classes, it should require the spelling of *the passage*, suiting itself to the advancement of the class by its manner of grouping the words. To diminish the chances of error, and to teach the proper division of words into their parts, it should accustom the class to spell the longer words in syllables, by requiring them to pause at the end of each; which their ear will enable them to do with sufficient accuracy till they have learned etymology. Correction in the oral spelling exercise should be effected by consecutive or simultaneous repetition, largely aided by the exhibition of words on the blackboard.

J. Currie.

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VII.—PUBLIC EDUCATION IN OTAGO.

It is not often that the parallel between men and nations holds good in the matter of education. In the individual it is the work of youth; in the state it is generally delayed until more pressing material claims have been satisfied. The case of the colonial province of Otago presents us with a notable exception to the rule of variance. Though the youngest of the British colonies, it is already, in proportion to its size, the farthest advanced in educational equipment,—in some important respects, farther even than the mother country. The settlement was founded (in the south of New Zealand, at a distance of 12,000 miles from London) only fifteen years ago, yet already it can boast of a system of "national" education, wonderful in its completeness and liberality both of spirit and of purse.

In looking about for the causes of this happy state of things, we must not forget the limited nature of the field,—the entire population is under 30,000, and less than half that number are of European origin,—certainly a manageable little community to deal with. We must further credit the Presbyterian origin of the colony with a goodly portion of its educational zeal. While carrying with them, however, their Scottish love of schooling, they have not stuck too closely to the Presbyterian model. In particular, they have steered clear of that close alliance of Church and School which has always ended hitherto in the subordination of the latter to the former. Their educational system is a distinct and independent establishment. Every citizen may take a share in its regulation as a citizen,—if he possess the requisite material qualification,—but no one is entitled to interfere with it on the score of his profession merely. Herein lies a main source of its strength. It must further be remembered, that the colonists could carry out their wise provisions with the greater ease that they had a *tabula rasa* to begin with. They were not hampered by vested interests, or by traditional crotchets. Probably if we in this country had our educational arrangements to begin afresh, there are many of its existing features which would never appear. This, however, only makes us envy the freedom of which this active and thriving little colony has taken such good advantage. The colonists have further evidently benefited by the attempts at educational legislation for Scotland with which the last decade has been so rife. But whilst the home efforts have signally failed, our antipodes have carried theirs to a successful issue. They present us with a scheme of national education in miniature, which we should rejoice to see expanded and applied to this country. They have done wisely in planting this vigorous sapling in their time of youth; for it will evidently grow with the growth of the colony, and strengthen with its strength.

"The Education Ordinance, 1862," is the latest local Statute on the subject,—a document which bears all the authoritative aspect of an Act of the Imperial Parliament. This, however, was not the first deliverance of the Provincial Council on the subject. As early as 1856,—

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before the colony was ten years old,—a provisional ordinance was passed, establishing schools in different parts of the colony. The rapid increase in the prosperity of the settlement (between 1853 and 1859, the export of wool increased from 5000 lbs. to 900,000 lbs.) as well as in its population, soon rendered the means provided under that ordinance inadequate; and, in 1861, the question of a new ordinance was raised in the Council. It was not, however, till May 1862 that their deliberations on the subject took the practical shape of the ordinance which lies before us, and of which we propose to give our readers an outline.

By this ordinance, the ordinance of 1856 was repealed; but all contracts thereunder were to be fulfilled under its successor. The Superintendent and the members of his Executive Council for the time being, together with the Speaker of the Provincial Council, were constituted a Board, called the "Otago Education Board," for carrying the provisions of the ordinance into effect. The officials of the Board are a secretary, and an inspector of schools. The Board holds two general meetings in each year—in April and October,—and all its meetings and adjournments are open to the public.

The Board exercises a general superintendence over all the public schools which had already been established under the former ordinance, or which shall be hereafter established; and promotes the establishment of school-districts, and defines their limits. The duties of the inspector of schools are somewhat broader than those of inspectors at home. He has to visit and inspect all schools once or oftener in every year, and from time to time to investigate and report on any matters relating to the educational condition of any school district; to investigate and report upon all complaints which shall at any time be made to the Board, either by the school teachers or the district school committees; to make an annual report, containing an account of the transactions of the Board, a statement of the number of schools in every educational district within the province, the statistics of attendance at such schools, etc. etc., so as to exhibit yearly a complete account of the state of education within the province, and accurate details in regard to any want of education which may exist therein. Educational districts are formed on the owners and occupiers of land and householders therein declaring their willingness that the said district be formed into an educational district, and their readiness to provide the proportion of the annual expenses of an educational district required by the ordinance.

The district school committee, which is elected annually, consists of not less than five or more than nine owners and occupiers of land, and householders in the district, *of whom a majority must be parents of families.* The school committee of every educational district have full power to determine the number and descriptions of schools, whether main or side schools, necessary for the district; the extent and description of buildings required for educational purposes therein; the salary of the teacher or teachers, and the rates of school fees. They are entitled to select the teacher or teachers of such school or schools,

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and generally have the entire management of educational matters within the district. In connexion with every main school there is a teacher's house, and not more than ten acres of land contiguous thereto, for the use and occupation of the teacher, part of which is laid off as a playground for the scholars.

To the school committee of every educational district is intrusted, as we have said, the selection of a teacher or teachers for every main and side school in the district. Any teacher who is unable to produce a certificate of qualification from Her Majesty's Committee of Privy Council on Education, is required to produce a certificate of qualification from the colonial inspector, and such other certificates of fitness as may be required by the Board. It is provided that all engagements and contracts entered into on the part of the Provincial Government with school teachers in Great Britain, shall be punctually fulfilled in the colony. The engagement of every school teacher is to be a yearly engagement. The school committee may, with the sanction of the Board, appoint a second master in any main schoo where the number of pupils renders this necessary. The selection of such assistant teacher is intrusted to the teacher of the school, subject only to the approval of the school committee of the district. The Board may authorize the master of any well-attended and efficiently-conducted main school to engage and employ in his school any number of apprentice or pupil-teachers that the Board may deem expedient, and may make regulations for the examination, training, and employment of such pupil teachers, and may out of any funds, from time to time appropriated by the Superintendent and Provincial Council, grant any moderate sum or sums of money in aid of the maintenance and education of these pupil-teachers, upon such conditions as the Board may think fit.

The school fees, if collected by the teacher, are paid over to the local treasurer quarterly. But the school committee may authorize the gratuitous education of such children as they shall name. A sum not exceeding £20 per annum in each case towards the payment of the teachers' salaries, and one-half of their passage, and one-half of the costs of keeping in repair all school buildings, teachers' houses, and the feuing of land annexed thereto, are defrayed out of funds appropriated by the Superintendent and Provincial Council for educational purposes; the remainder of such salaries and expenses, together with incidental expenses, are defrayed by each school district out of the school fees, donations, and subscriptions; and, if necessary, by local rates. In no case can any reduction be made in a teacher's salary, once fixed, without the consent of the Education Board.

The school committee is authorized to make a district rate of sufficient amount to meet expenditure, to be assessed upon all houses, shops, and other buildings and lands.

The Board may, at its discretion, grant any moderate sum or sums of money in aid of the efforts made by private individuals or associations for the promotion of education in districts in which, from the smallness or scattered position of the population, or from other causes,

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no educational district shall have been proclaimed. The Board may also, out of funds specially appropriated for the purpose by the Superintendent and Provincial Council, form public libraries in educational districts. The Board may further grant moderate sums in aid of reading clubs or libraries connected with any teachers' associations that may be formed by the public school teachers in the province.

Under the same ordinance, there has been established in Dunedin a High School, called "The High School of Otago," under a rector, masters, and assistants, in which all the branches of a liberal education —the French and other modern languages, the Latin and Greek classics, mathematics, etc.—are taught. The High School is entirely under the superintendence and control of the Board, and is maintained and supported, and all salaries and expenses connected therewith are paid, out of school fees and moneys appropriated by the Superintendent and Provincial Council for that purpose, and any other available funds. The Board is empowered from time to time to establish exhibitions or scholarships, to be held in the High School of Otago, or in any University in Great Britain, Ireland, Australia, or New Zealand, by students of any public school of the province of Otago, provided that such exhibitions and scholarships shall be submitted to public competition in such manner and under such regulations as the Board shall determine. But no public money can be expended in the permanent endowment of such exhibitions and scholarships, unless specially appropriated to that purpose by the Superintendent and Provincial Council.

The ordinance provided that the salary of the rector of the High School should not be less than £250 a year, and the salary of the teacher of every main district school not less than £100 a year. We shall presently see that this minimum has been greatly exceeded. In every school established under the provisions of the ordinance, it is enacted that the Holy Scriptures shall be read daily, and such religious instruction given as the district school committee shall appoint: "Provided always, that no religious doctrines shall be taught at variance with what are commonly known as evangelical Protestant doctrines; and provided also, that the hours for religious instruction and Scripture reading shall be either at the opening or close of the school daily, as may be fixed by the teacher; and no child whose parent or guardian shall object to such instructions shall be bound to attend at such times."

The last annual report of the Secretary* to the Education Board (who is also Inspector of Schools) informs us that there are now nineteen educational districts established in the province; in connexion with which there have been sixteen *main* schools, and four *side* schools in operation, during the whole or a portion of the past year. In December 1861, the total population of the districts in which schools were in operation was 12,579, while the number of children of school age (six to sixteen) was 2295. Of these there were about 1310 in ordinary attendance at school in September 1862, and about 985

* John Hislop, Esq., formerly parish schoolmaster at Kirknewton, near Edinburgh (1843-56).

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who, at the same time, were not receiving school education. The population, in December 1862, of those portions of the province not yet included in any school district, was 14,584, or, exclusive of the gold-fields, 3112. The number of educable children in the same localities was 364, or, exclusive of the gold-fields, 307, while the number of children receiving education privately was 28. It would thus appear that the proportion of children who received school instruction for longer or shorter periods during the past year, to the whole population, exclusive of the gold-fields, was 1 in 9·4, or about 63 per cent. of the whole educable children. Within the limits of the educational districts, the corresponding proportions would be about 1 in 8, or 72 per cent., and 1 in 9·6, or about 57 per cent.

The report details the steps taken by the Board for the establishment of the High School of Otago, already referred to. It was resolved that the number of masters at the outset should not be less than three: one to hold the appointment of principal, to have the general oversight of all the classes within the institution, and to be responsible for the good government, efficiency, and success of the same; but each master, as far as possible, to have charge of a distinct department of instruction. The principal's (or classical master's) department was to include Latin, Greek, French, etc., ancient history and geography, etc. The English department to include advanced English reading, grammar, composition, and other collateral branches, geography, history, etc. The arithmetic and mathematical department to include arithmetic and mathematics, in theory and practice, book-keeping, etc. It was further enacted, that no boy should be admitted a pupil of the institution until he had passed an *entrance examination*, of such nature and extent as might be fixed by the Education Board. Here we have one of those wise provisions in which the colony puts the mother country to shame. There is no college, and no high school in Scotland, in which such a regulation is enforced. The Board, at the same time, took into consideration the steps necessary to be adopted to procure the services of three thoroughly-qualified masters for the proposed High School. It was agreed to place the selection of the three proposed masters in the hands of the Provost of Eton, the Rector of the Edinburgh High School, and the Rector of the Edinburgh Academy; the salaries offered being, for the principal, £550, with £100 in lieu of house; each of the other masters £450, with £75 for house. The elections were made in March of the present year.* In his capacity of inspector, Mr. Hislop adds, "As far as I have been able to judge, the provisions of the new Education Ordinance seem to meet with the approval generally of the school committees, and of intelligent settlers; and there is evident, in many of the districts, a determination fairly and fully to carry these into successful operation. The chief, and indeed the only difficulty that

* The Rev. T. H. Campbell was appointed principal, and Messrs. Daniel Brent (Camb.) and George P. Abram (Camb.), mathematical and English masters, respectively. Sad to say, Mr. Campbell was not permitted to enter on his new duties. He, with his wife and whole family, was drowned near the end of the voyage. Mr. Simmons, of Dundee Proprietary School, has been nominated his successor.

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seems to be apprehended, is the expense and trouble that will probably attend the assessing of the property, and the levying of the school-rate. The school committees generally have manifested a disposition to deal liberally with the teachers in respect of salary. In South Dunedin, the annual salary is £250. In North Dunedin, Oamaru, North-East Valley, and Caversham, the committees have resolved to pay £200. In the Clutha district, which comprises three main schools, each of the teachers receives £125 of fixed salary, and all the school fees, which last year averaged £30 each. In Tokomairiro, the salary is £180, and in nearly all the other districts the main school teachers receive either £150, or a fixed salary of £100, together with the fees, which will average upwards of £50 each."

VIII.—THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE VEDAS.*

THE Geography of India, during the earliest period of the history of that country, is wrapped up in so much obscurity, that the task of establishing it with anything like certainty would appear quite hopeless. In 1849, however, the *Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres* opened a competition on this very subject, and by way of partly answering the question, M. Vivien de Saint Martin has published the *brochure* to which we would direct the attention of our readers.

Some years ago it would have been certainly impossible even to jot down the principal epochs serving as land-marks in the wide field of Indian history; but thanks to the labours of Professors Wilson and Lassen, of Gorresio, Eugène Burnouf, Max Müller, and Adolphe Régnier, this preliminary identification is now comparatively easy, and may be determined in the following manner:—1. *The Vedic epoch.* During this interval, extending over several centuries, beginning with the year 1400 B.C., and reaching as far as probably the twelfth century before the Christian era, we are left almost entirely destitute of positive historic information. The various writings of the Vedic epoch derive their importance chiefly from the light they throw upon the philosophy, the religious tenets, and the social condition of the people who revered them as their code of worship; but they are also extremely interesting for the geographical facts they contain. "They afford us," to quote Dr. Muir's remark, "very distinct indications of the locality in which they were composed; they show us the Arian tribes living in a state of warfare with surrounding enemies, and gradually forcing their way onward to the east and south." M. Vivien de Saint Martin, who gives to the Vedic epoch the appellation of *temps primitifs de l'Inde*, confirms the evidence we have just quoted from the learned compiler of the *Sanscrit texts;* he observes that the Vedas give only two or three names of territories; but, on the other hand, the designations of tribes, Aryan or not, occur in rather large num-

* *Etude sur la Géographie du Nord-ouest de l'Inde.* Par M. Vivien de Saint Martin, 8vo. Paris, Duprat.

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bers," and the elucidation of these data is of essential service in laying down the foundations of the ethnology of Northern India.

2. *The heroic period* of Hindu history begins with the establishment of the Aryan monarchies in those countries forming the basin of the Ganges. Comprising, like the previous one, a series of centuries, this epoch appears to us through the medium of poetical tradition as the most glorious time in the annals of ancient India. If the Aryas had had their Herodotus or their Livy, we might at the present time be treasuring up in our libraries some additional masterpiece of historic composition referring to the revolutions which visited the East. Instead, however, of plain facts, we have only legends embellished by the genius of poetry, and we must, with considerable hesitation, endeavour to ascertain, in the episodes of the Râmâyana and the Mahâbhârata, the respective shades of fiction and of truth. But if the merit of these poems, as containing statements of real events, may fairly be questioned, the geographical indications they supply are, on the contrary, both plentiful and correct. Of the episodes (*itihâsas*) especially, M. Vivien de Saint Martin says, that they are "inexhaustible mines of geographical particulars;" and he further alludes to several "itineraries which have all the worth and sometimes all the precision we delight to find in the narratives of modern travellers." Thus the march of the ambassadors from Ayôdhyâ towards the royal city of the prince of the Kêkaya, and that of Bharata in search of his brother Râma, who has sought a refuge in the forests of Tchitrakoûta, the Mahâbhârata, the Râmâyana, the Upanishads, and other commentaries on the Vedas, are the principal sources of geographical information respecting the *heroic epoch.*

3. *Historic period.*—We now come to a time when synchronisms occur in sufficient number, at least, to guide us through our researches. The religious reform introduced by the Buddha Çakyamuni (543 B.C.) marks the opening of this period, and the documents available for us may be ranged under three different classes, namely, the Buddhist books, the relations or journals of Chinese Buddhist missionaries, and finally, the documents left by Greek and Roman writers from the time of Alexander the Great to that of Cosmas Indicopleustes, whose narrative is so curious (sixth century A.D.)

The Mussulman invasion (664 A.D.) forms the extreme boundary of the history of ancient India, and accordingly we shall, together with the *programme* of the Académie des Inscriptions, and with M. Vivien de Saint Martin, place here the limits of our inquiries. The learned author, whose preface we have attempted to condense in the above remarks, goes on to sketch the plan he purposes filling; out of his twelve intended disquisitions two only are at present before the public, the one we are now examining and which treats of Vedic geography, and another devoted to the accounts given of India by classical writers. We can only hope that M. de Saint Martin will be soon enabled to finish a work, the importance of which may be to a certain extent measured by the scanty details we at present possess on the subject.

In approaching the real topic of his work, M. de Saint Martin re-

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marks, that the geographical indications contained in the Vedic books refer exclusively to rivers. These are thirty-two in number, and notices of them occur throughout the different hymns which compose the Vedas. The *Saraswâti*, or, as it is now called, the *Sarsuti*, appears, however, to be the river *par excellence*, and its merits form the topic of the most laudatory strains. Thus:—"Saraswâti, best of mothers, best of rivers, best of goddesses" (*Rig-Veda*, Asht. 11. adh. 8), and a number of other invocations quoted by our author chiefly from M. Langlois' French translation. The predilection of the Hindus for the Saraswâti may be accounted for, M. de Saint Martin thinks, because it was on its banks that "a great revolution, political, social, and religious, took place. From a nation originally divided into tribes, one single community sprang up governed by a powerful king. To a life essentially pastoral in its character succeeded the sedentary habits implied by the construction of large cities. The division into castes was established, that distinctive feature of Hindu society; finally, religion itself and religious worship underwent deep modifications through the influence, now become all-powerful, of a vast sacerdotal body."

Without discussing here the notices given by M. de Saint Martin of the several rivers enumerated in the Vedas, we shall merely touch upon a point which is of some importance, and with respect to which the learned French geographer differs entirely from the late Professor Wilson. In the English translation of the Rig-Veda (vol. i. p. 41) we find the following statement:—"Not only are the *Súktas* (Vedic hymns) familiar with the ocean and its phenomena, but we have merchants pressing earnestly on board ship, for the sake of gain; and we have a naval expedition against a foreign island, or continent (*dwipa*), frustrated by a shipwreck." Now, M. de Saint Martin believes that it is impossible to admit the notion of the Hindus, in the Vedic epoch, having had any acquaintance with the sea. "Pastoral tribes having no relation of any kind with neighbouring countries, except those arising from a continued state of hostilities carried on against the savage hordes which were in their immediate vicinity; pastoral tribes, we say, placed in the situations described by each line of their religious hymns, cannot have had, either remotely or immediately, the slightest idea of the seas into which the larger rivers of India find their issue." In order to prove this against Professor Wilson, M. de Saint Martin quotes the passages we shall now transcribe:—

"The odours of India, bearing oblations, are thronging round (him), as (merchants) covetous of gain crowd the ocean (in vessels) on a voyage" (*Rig-Veda*, Wilson's translation, vol. i. p. 152).

"Tugra, verily, Aswins, sent (his son) Bhujyu to sea, as a dying man parts with his riches; but you brought him back in vessels of your own, floating over the ocean, and keeping out the waters.

"Three nights and three days, Nasatyas, have you conveyed Bhujyu in three rapid, revolving cars, having a hundred wheels, and drawn by six horses, along the dry bed of the ocean, to the shore of the sea.

"This exploit you achieved, Aswins, in the ocean, where there is no-

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thing to give support, nothing to rest upon, nothing to cling to, that you brought Bhujyu, sailing in a hundred-oar ship, to his father's house." —(*Ibid.* pp. 306-7.)

With respect to the former of these passages, where the substantive *Samudra* has been translated by ocean or sea (*mari veluti nautæ divitias quærentes; cf.* Rosen's *Rig-Veda*, p. 93), M. de Saint Martin remarks, that only one inference can be deduced from it, viz., in the earliest times the rivers of that part of India were covered with barges as they were afterwards during the reign of Alexander the Great (*cf. Arrian. Indic.* xii. 1), and as they are even at the present time. M. de. Saint Martin acknowledges that in classical Sanscrit *Samudra* means *the sea*, but he denies that the Vedas employ it with the same signification. "The very composition of the word, formed from *udra*, water (ὕδωρ), and *zam*, together (σύν), and consequently its natural meaning, express no other idea than that of a certain extent of water agglomerated on one given space. A lake where several currents meet, a river into which several affluents fall, are so many *Samudras*, in the strict etymological sense."

With reference to the latter quotation, if we consider the important fact it describes, namely, the return of Bhujyu in the space of three days and three nights, we shall see that, supposing the sailors to have rowed during that interval without the slightest interruption, they cannot even then have journeyed over a space of more than 100 English miles. Now, at whatever locality in the Punjab the event is placed which forms the subject of the hymn just quoted, we shall still be at a very long distance from the ocean.

After noticing the other geographical terms contained in the Vedas, M. de Saint Martin proceeds to the ethnological study of these sacred books, and, in doing so, he is led principally to describe the two powerful races whose antagonism is so minutely related by the authors of the Vedic hymns. The *Dasyus* appear to have been the aboriginal inhabitants of the Punjab; their national name was *Djât*, which is softened into the Sanscrit *Yâdasa*. As for the designation *Dasyu*, originating from the Zend *dagyu* (land, country, Sansc. *dêsa*) it signified at first merely the *men of the land*, but in the mouth of the Aryas it came to imply likewise the idea of *barbarians*, *enemies*, and finally preserved this last signification exclusively. Endowed with irresistible courage and enterprise, fierce and impetuous, greedy of prey, the Aryas rushed from the north like a whirlwind, and established themselves on the fertile territories till then occupied by the *Djâts*. They belonged in all probability to the same stock as the Iranian tribes, whom Herodotus designates as Ἄριοι, and who were called *Aroya* in the cuneiform inscriptions. That they came from the north can scarcely be doubted, as Professor Wilson remarks, "from the peculiar expressions used, on more than one occasion, in soliciting long life,—when the worshipper asks for a hundred *winters*, a boon not likely to have been desired by the natives of a warm climate." The *Dasyus* were finally expelled from their possessions, and driven to take refuge amongst the mountains north-east of the Punjab; there they became associated in the

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minds of the Aryas with the rains which bring to the lower part of India its freshness and its fertility. From the mountains rush forth the torrents; in the mountain-ranges are gathered the clouds upon which, so to say, the very maintenance of life depends for the lowland agriculturists. Therefore, if the periodical rainfalls are deficient, if the beneficial inundations do not take place, whom should we call to account but the *Dasyus*, lords of the mountains? Hence strains like the following:—

"Sudra, who is invoked by many, attended by the morning (Maruts), having attacked the Dasyus and the Simyus, slew them with his thunderbolt, the thunderer then divided the fields with his white-complexioned friends, and *rescued the sun, and set free the water.*"—(*Rig-Veda*, Wilson, i. p. 259.)

"Aswins, causing the barley to be sown (in the fields that had been prepared) by the plough; milking the clouds for the sake of Nanu; destroying the Dasyu with the thunderbolt; you have bestowed brilliant light upon the Arya."—(*Ibid.* p. 318.)

As a matter of consequence, the Dasyus, always dreaded, despite the subjection to which they were reduced, were identified by Aryas with everything that is bad or dangerous, and the hymns which celebrate the victories of the invaders present an extraordinary *mélange*, where the names of real chieftains, kings, and tribes are mixed up with allegorical appellations expressing the victories obtained over the powers of nature by prayer and sacrifice.

A final point upon which M. de Saint Martin insists with much reason, is the distinction which perpetually subsisted between the original *Aryas* and those who became such by adoption. The Dasyu tribes, converted to the worship of Sudra, were in course of time adopted into fellowship with their masters; but the two races never became thoroughly amalgamated. "Aryas by political annexation and by religious proselytism, the Dasyus remained Djâts in virtue of their name, their origin, and also in a great measure their national ideas. Unless we bear this fact in mind, we shall miss the true signification of the traditions contained both in the Mahâbhârata and the Purânas."

The few observations we have now presented to our readers will, we hope, give them some idea of M. Vivien de Saint Martin's valuable *brochure*. It is written with great method and lucidity, the illustrations it contains of Hindu history and geography are very curious, and we shall look forward anxiously for the promised sequel, in which the learned author purposes studying from the same point of view the epic monuments of the heroic age. G. M.

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IX.—STATISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL RESULTS.

Much of the scepticism prevalent as to the power and value of popular education arises from the inability of the educationist, or of the school teacher, to adduce satisfactory statistical evidence of the moral or of the intellectual results from any special courses of instruction or training, as manifested in after life. From the most advanced schools the pupils are discharged and sent abroad amidst the crowds of large towns; and the closely-occupied school teacher usually only sees or hears of the careers of a few of them casually. From the loose observations of the few, he draws his own conclusions. Whether the majority have done well or ill, he cannot, when cross-examined, pretend to answer. How they are distinguished from others who have been under an educational course different from his own, he cannot tell. On the other hand, from conspicuous instances of moral or intellectual failures, generally exceptional, parties, particularly members of Parliament, draw inferences adverse to popular elementary education.

In poor-law administration I found it to be important to obtain more certain and complete information than had hitherto been obtained, of the moral as well as the intellectual results of training and education. I adopted, as a rude practical test of moral results, the fact of a child getting into some place, and keeping it for a year. In a large proportion of the town parishes, not above one-third of the children so tested were found in conditions of self-supporting or respectable industry. In order to ascertain the results of particular methods of instruction, I got in some parishes circular letters sent to the employers of children, requesting answers to questions as to their experience of them, and as to any defaults attributable to education or training for which remedies were needed. Few answers were got that could be depended upon. Many of the employers were themselves ill educated, and incapable of giving proper answers. I then got several of the new union chaplains to make house-to-house visits to the employers of the children, to make the requisite inquiries from them. These first visits of the chaplains to the employers of the orphan or destitute female children sometimes led them into common brothels and terrible haunts of vice, to which the poor children had been allowed to be taken without inquiry, and places where clergymen had never before been seen. Then it was made more apparent, that there were common conditions of domestic service in which the efforts of all moral or religious instruction must be destroyed—places where a poor employer, the master and the mistress, with the male apprentice, as well as the young girl, were crowded together in one sleeping-room—places in beer-shops and common lodging-houses. Then, again, it was made more clear, in respect to the parish apprentices of good intellectual training, that their physical training having been neglected, they were physically inapt for the work to which they were put, or incapable of it, or were maltreated for their presumed unwillingness, and ran away. The ignorant and

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irresponsible local administrators of the local self-governments, in their impatience to be rid of burdens, took any offers for the service of the children, and hence created additional burdens, from a delinquent as well as a pauper population. The immediate results of these house-to-house visitations and examinations, beyond the possible ken of the school teacher, was to impress upon the guardians the necessity of exercising care to obtain fit places for children, as well as to modify the training, so as to prepare the children for suitable occupations. Rules have, in many instances, been framed for these purposes; and in well-administered district-schools the house-to-house visitation of the children at their places of work, or of habitation, is provided for as a regular and responsible service. In some instances, the new duties have been devolved upon an officer of the class of a relieving officer. But more inferior appointments ought to be prevented by positive regulation. The service is one which, for secular purposes alone, requires a high amount of discretion, and the moral influence which is given by education and position such as is only available from amongst the clergy. The clergyman's office and position are specially important for the moral support of lonely orphan children. Viewed administratively, however, I have to submit this service of house-to-house visitation as a proper audit of public educational institutions, and as an important means of testing and advancing their efficiency. I found great differences in results, from the teaching in different schools where the subject-matters taught were alike, but where the conditions and manners of the teachers were different. These differences strongly impressed me with the importance which such an audit would enforce of having well-mannered persons as teachers.

The regular topics of inquiry with which such an officer should be charged would be, from the employed as well as the employer, as to the school instruction, "Which portions of it (to use the phrase in the competitive schools) are found practically to *pay* the best? What additions or variations are needed for the service, or for the happiness of the individual taught? What of the book instruction is found to have been useless, or a mere waste of time, or, to use the school slang, has been mere *rot*, that ought to be cut away?" and he should report accordingly. The benefits derivable from such a system of visitation —less of the schools themselves than of the domiciles of those who have been brought up in them—are immense.

From those already instituted in connexion with the district half-time poor-law schools in England, there are now derivable educational statistics, founded on the house-to-house visitations, of a new value to determine the results of educational and training power.

These district schools may be considered as being to some extent children's hospitals, into which are received the most enfeebled and physically deteriorated and wretched of the population. They contain a large proportion of scrofulous, idiotic and partially idiotic, deaf and dumb, and bodily disabled, children. The law of England does not yet protect the children of profligate parents from the exercise of authority by those parents, or prevent the prostitute mother from claiming her

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daughter at the age of puberty, and taking her to live in her own haunts, and out of the reach of after visitation and influence. Eliminating such cases, taking the cases of what are called pure orphans, it appears, on statistical returns tested by the requisite house-to-house visitation, that of those who can be accounted for as in good, respectable, self-supporting service, the moral failures by misconduct amounting to a disqualification for such service are reduced to about two per cent.*

Another source of valuable statistical evidence of educational and training power is afforded by the administration of the public schools maintained for children educated for the army and for the navy, and by the returns from responsible military and naval officers as to the conduct in the regiments or on shipboard of those so trained and educated. Some of the most interesting and important of the educational statistics, and the best methods of registering the facts for those statistics that I have met with, are those devised and conducted by the Rev. George Fisher, the Principal of the Greenwich Hospital School. Some foreign commissioners of education to whom I have shown them have expressed their concurrence with me as to their practical value. I beg to be permitted to draw attention in the *Museum* to his statement of them to me, as also his answers as to the results, inasmuch as I did not obtain them in time for their being submitted to Parliament with the other educational evidence collected by me.

The Rev. GEORGE FISHER, Principal of the Greenwich Hospital School.

What is the present number of the pupils of your school?—Eight hundred.

Of what class are they?—They may perhaps be best described in the words of Mr. Canon Mosely, who reported on them, that the great majority of them are the sons of sailors; that they have not unfrequently passed their previous lives amongst the lowest haunts of a seafaring population, and they come to the institution "at an age (about eleven) when the influence of evil example has already begun to acquire some hold upon them, and the power of evil habits has begun to be felt." He says, "my object is simply to show what a school composed of such children becomes when the standard of education is low, and what when it is high."

What were the intellectual results before the commencement of the new course of tuition?—We had no record of results, and it was to supply the deficiency that the numerical method was devised by me.† The teaching was of a very inferior character. The elementary subjects were confined to reading, a little grammar, church catechism, and writing taught only to the first class, and carried out on the monitorial system of Bell. There were then only two masters to 400 children.

What are now the subject-matters taught?—Reading, spelling, writing, ciphering, mathematics, grammar, and composition; general

* See on this topic the valuable evidence of Mr. E. Carleton Tuffnell, the Inspector of the District Schools, to whose ability and zeal their success is mainly due.

† See Appendix, p. 484.

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history, French, drawing, and practical science, including mechanics, steam machinery, and hydrostatics, and the common experiments in natural philosophy. There are now sixteen masters to eight hundred boys, and there are also sixteen pupil teachers.

Are the boys of the same class as before?—Just the same.

What were the moral results obtained formerly, as set forth in general descriptions?—Mr. Canon Mosely, who inspected the school at that time, states, in 1842, that the infliction of corporal punishments was very frequent; that is, by the birch, for offences out of school as well as in school; and for out-door offences the punishments were confinement by the leg by a chain and padlock fixed to a hammock stanchion, and confinement of the arms by a strait waistcoat. The number of punishments administered in respect to offences committed out of school between Midsummer 1842 and the following Christmas was 120, of which sixty-seven were corporal punishments, and thirty-seven of the number for the offence of absconding over the school walls.

What is the present state of things, as denoted by your record of punishments?—Mr. Canon Mosely, in 1845, reported, as one effect of an improved moral and intellectual treatment of the boys, that the offences requiring punishment had considerably diminished. Accurate statistics of the moral conduct of boys were begun only in 1850; and the progress will be seen by the red-line marked "character," and it will be seen that it rises with the intellectual attainments. I consider that the former excessive punishments were one exciting cause of evil. The occasion for punishment in the present state of the school may be denoted by our last year's returns, where, out of 800 children, and for the entire year, the number discharged for various offences was eleven; and the corporal punishments for the same period were, for out-school misconduct, thirty-five, and those not severe; and for in-school misconduct fifteen. These punishments, as will be seen by Mr. Canon Mosely's returns, are a small fraction of the former punishments.

What was the former economical result of the education as displayed in the "ship character" and conduct of the boys?—The general result may be stated to have been indifferent; but we have no early records to enable the result to be stated statistically. Formerly, the character of Greenwich boys amongst seamen was bad; the boys were unsteady, intractable, and troublesome, and frequently ran away. Now, the reported character of the Greenwich boy is the reverse. Thus the late Captain Sir Everard Home, reported, "There is a remarkable style of character in all the Greenwich boys whom I have seen, different from others,—a steady, firm, respectful, manly deportment, not often met with, entirely the effect of discipline and self-possession." Mr. Canon Mosely reports, as the results of official inquiries from commanders, that "it is a fact worthy of observation, that so long as a low standard of education was affixed to the education of the boys of the Greenwich School, lest it should render them dissatisfied with the hardships of a seafaring life, they were found to be dissatisfied with those hardships, and ran away from their ships, and that now, when it is fixed at a high

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standard, they are not dissatisfied with them; they do not run away from their ships, and are more steady, as it is termed, than other boys." The statistical abstract of the ship characters of boys, received from the Admiralty from July 1861 to June 30, 1862, is, of 150 boys, as follows: "Very good, eighty-eight;" "good, forty;" "fair, promising, nine;" "indifferent, lazy, troublesome, two;" "dishonest, one," —this lad appropriated to his own use some wine belonging to the sick. As to ten, no reports have been received, probably because, on account of the transference from ship to ship, there was no time to give any.*

The Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea, for the children of soldiers, which is a school of mixed physical and mental training, may be presented as another example of educational power and economy in result. In the investigation of the sources of juvenile delinquency or of mendicancy, and the parentage of the delinquents, one common answer was, "father a soldier," or "a sailor;" "mother dead," or "mother unable to maintain him;" "deserted;" and there cannot be a doubt that, in the absence of any case of provision for that class of children, the great mass of them must be economically total losses of capital. The following are the results of the returns of their characters from the commanding officers of the regiments they have joined:—Out of 376 children, 87 were returned as exemplary; 261 as good; 23 as indifferent; and only 5 as bad. But equally important is the evidence of the increased value given to the children by good training (including the physical as well as the mental training), as displayed in the ranks attained by a large proportion of the children, and those ranks denoting the increased value which may be imparted by improved training. Twelve were staff-sergeants, 25 sergeants, 32 corporals, 95 trumpeters, or drummers, and 210 privates. Out of this school 17 had become commissioned officers. I attach much importance to schools of this description, as imparting, with the physical training, those moral virtues, or, speaking economically, those values implied in the terms discipline, attention, prompt and exact obedience, patience, self-restraint, so important for productive applications. I am glad to state that his Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge and the Council of Military Education are in advance in educational improvement, as they have ordered a reduction of the hours of sedentary application to an average of about three hours daily. Mr. Macleod, the head-master, assured us, on a recent visit with foreign commissioners, that this reduction has been unattended with any reduction of the amount of mental attainment within the same periods in weeks or months.

I need not dwell on the vindication of educational and training power afforded by such facts. It were of importance that the results of educational expenditure on the public institutions should be regu-

* There have been recent inquiries as to the administration of the funds of the Hospital, relating mainly to questions of expenditure which do not affect the above results. In the evidence collected by me and presented to Parliament, examples are given of equivalent moral results obtained at less than half the expense incurred in the administration of the Hospital Schools.

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larly presented, as upon an annual audit, for the satisfaction of those locally interested in them, as well as for the public at large and the members of the Legislature. The cases of failure, of "the indifferent," "the lazy," "the bad," and "the dishonest," which are so often the conspicuous cases, and held forth as examples of the general results, would be cases reserved for regular inquiry, as cases of shipwreck, to ascertain the conditions under which they originated, and as to the means of preventing them. Hence the audit of educational results, tested by sound statistical returns, would, under a proper system of local and general educational administration, become practical means of great moral as well as intellectual advancement.

EDWIN CHADWICK, C.B.

APPENDIX.

We quote, from a letter addressed to Mr. Chadwick by the Rev. George Fisher, the following description of the method of collecting educational statistics in use in the Greenwich Hospital School :—

"A book, called the 'Scale-Book,' has been established, which contains the numbers assigned to each degree of proficiency in the various subjects of examination : for instance, if it be required to determine the numerical equivalent corresponding to any specimen of 'writing,' a comparison is made with various standard specimens, which are arranged in this book in order of merit ; the highest being represented by the number 1, and the lowest by 5, and the intermediate values by affixing to these numbers the fractions $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{3}{4}$. So long as these standard specimens are preserved in the institution, so long will constant numerical values for proficiency in 'writing' be maintained. And since facsimiles can be multiplied without limit, the same principle might be generally adopted.

"The numeral values for 'spelling' follow the same order, and are made to depend upon the percentage of mistakes in writing from dictation sentences from works selected for the purpose, examples of which are contained in the 'Scale-Book,' in order to preserve the same standard of difficulty.

"By a similar process, values are assigned for proficiency in mathematics, navigation, Scripture knowledge, grammar, and composition, French, general history, drawing, and practical science, respectively. Questions in each of these subjects are contained in the 'Scale-Book,' to serve as types, not only of the difficulty, but of the nature of the question, for the sake of future reference ; observing that the same numerals are used in the same order as before ; viz., number 1 denotes the highest, and the number 5 the lowest, amount of attainments.

"In respect to the numerical values of 'reading,' as regards accuracy, taste, and judgment, it is obvious that no other standard of measurement can be applied, beyond the interpretation of the terms 'good,' 'bad,' 'indifferent,' etc., existing at the period of examination. And the same observation will apply to the estimation by numbers of 'characters' and 'natural abilities,' as determined by the united testimony of the respective masters.

"Having stated thus much with regard to the plan pursued in this school, I may add, that the advantage derived from this numerical mode of valuation, as applied to educational subjects, is not confined to its being a *concise* method of registration, combined with a useful approximation to a *fixed standard* of estimation, applicable to each boy ; but it affords also the means of determining the *sum total*, and therefrom the mean or average condition or value, of any given number of results."

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X.—REVIEWS AND NOTICES OF BOOKS.

I. CLASSICAL.

G. Valerii Catulli, Liber. Recognovit et enarravit L. SCHWABIUS. *Quæstionum Catullianarum.* Liber i. Gissæ, 1862.

THOUGH there is no edition of Catullus by an English scholar which is at all worthy of the name, it cannot be said that that poet's life and remains have been treated by us with utter indifference. There were fair translations of him by Lambe and others, even before Mr. Theodore Martin enriched our translational literature with his elegant version. The debt which English scholars owe this graceful translator is enhanced by his able introductory sketch of the life and writings of the poet. And when we add to this the valuable pages of Mr. Sellar's recently published "Roman Poets of the Republic," which refer to Catullus, we have indicated the sources to which a general reader may safely go for a sufficient outline of his personal and public history. Such as are minded to go deeper must needs incur a debt to German industry, and may be assured that, in the instalment which lies before us of a copious work on Catullus, meditated by M. Schwabe, they will find a vast quantity of valuable and recondite information, well fitted to the purpose of completing the picture, by *shading in* the outline which we already possess. It is true, indeed, that a sifting process will be desirable. There is some chaff with the wheat; here and there we detect a little excess of industrious lucubration, resulting in "lame and impotent conclusions;" yet, for the most part, this volume of 364 octavo pages is full of fresh illustrations of facts heretofore scarcely as clear as we could desire, and, in some points, of guesses at truth which are, at any rate, extremely happy. The value of the work is such that the future English editor of such a Catullus as our advanced knowledge and scholarship require, cannot afford to despise the investigations of M. Schwabe, whose work, if carried out, as it has been begun, will earn him a high rank among the acute and laborious scholars of his fatherland. What he has already published consists of fifteen chapters, dealing with the names, birth, life, and loves of Catullus; with the friends, acquaintances, and rivals, who surrounded the poet, around whom the chief interest centres; and with the approximate dates of his poems. Beginning with his names, Schwabe establishes, with as much certainty as we can at the present day hope to attain to, that he would be styled in full *Gaius* Valerius Catullus Veronensis. The prænomen "Quintus" lacks authority, and is chiefly to be considered on account of its connexion with Lachmann's ingenious emendation of poem LXVII. 12,—

"Verum istud populi fabula, Quinte, facit,"

for the clearly corrupt reading, "Verum isti populi janua qui te facit." Without going further into the various suggestions for remedying this verse, we will merely say that Schwabe would read—

Verum isti populo janua quidque facit,

and that Haupt, Rosebach, and Mommsen have abandoned the prænomen of Quintus. The authorities for *Gaius* are Hieronymus and Suetonius, to whose testimony we are also indebted for the place of his birth being Verona, for his name Valerius, and for his connexion with the Valeria Gens.

If we pass on to the question of the birth and death dates of Catullus, we shall find the subject treated exhaustively. From poem LII., "Quid est Catulle? Quid moraris emori?" and the mention in it of Struma Nonius and

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of Vatinius, many have supposed that the poet lived till the consulship of Vatinius and Q. Fufius Calenus, during the last days of B.C. 47. But, says Schwabe, no poem of Catullus extant contains any allusion to any of the stirring events (*e.g.*, the death of Clodius in B.C. 52; the civil wars of 49 and 48 B.C., and the Alexandrine war, B.C. 47) which occurred between B.C. 54 and B.C. 47; whereas he alludes to Pompey's "covered promenade," ("Magni ambulatione") which was constructed B.C. 55, and he must have written poems XI. and XXIX. after Cæsar's expedition to Britain in the same year. M. Schwabe sees no reason to conclude that LII. 3, "Per consulatum pejerat Vatinius," is any proof that Catullus lived till the consulship of Vatinius, and thinks that we must understand with "consulatum" "*expectatum*," and explain "pejerat" of such expressions of Vatinius as "Ita consul fiam, ut quæ affirmo vera sunt." That such was his way of forswearing himself is curiously confirmed by Cicero in *Vatin.* ii. 6. v. 11. The grounds of the conclusion arrived at, that the poet died in 54 B.C., the year in which he published his poems, and the year after the death of Lucretius, whose recent death Cornelius Nepos couples with that of Catullus in his life of *Atticus*, xii. 4, seem to us irrefragable. As we have not space for a minute examination of the volume, it must suffice to draw attention to the elaborate inquiry into the world-famous loves of Catullus and Lesbia, which is in fact the cream of the whole. Here will be found much interesting matter to supplement Mr. Martin and Mr. Sellar. The Lesbia of Catullus was no more a real name, than the Cynthia of Propertius, the Delia of Tibullus, or Ovid's Corinna. Like the last, she was of high birth and of some literary pretensions, whence her poet-lover gave her a name suggested by his fondness for the poetry of Sappho, just as Ovid gave his mistress the name of the Tanagrœan poetess. Through the scandalous chronicle of the loves of Catullus, and the worthless Clodia (*alias* Lesbia) we have no wish to drag the reader of this journal; and we cannot quite subscribe to the apology for the poet suggested by M. Schwabe, that his "vesania" was a proof of his genius, or swallow the averment that he never intrigued with two frail fair ones at once (*see* p. 137, etc.) Neither do we quite see the force of his argument that Clodia had literary and poetic tastes, from her having promised to burn

> "Electissima pessimi poetæ
> Scripta" (Poem XXXVI., *cf.* p. 77);

though his reference to the 27th chapter of Cicero's oration for Cœlius does seem to prove it. That same *Cœlius* is well identified in these pages with the Rufus of many poems and epigrams of Catullus, and shown to have been his friend, rival, and butt, in turn. But Cœlius was only one of the countless rivals of our poet, and if at any time such love as his could have been *true*, it may be doubted whether it was *smooth* from the day of their rendezvous at the house of Allius, who facilitated the amour (*cf.* LXVIII. b. Rossbach), till Catullus finally broke it off, by putting the sea between himself and Clodia, and going to Bithynia with the prætor Memmius. From their first *liaison* in 61 B.C., and the "candidi soles" which poor Catullus then dreamed he was enjoying, till he emancipated himself from her toils for ever in B.C. 59, his state of mind must chiefly have been such as could be expressed in his own words, "*Odi et amo*," LXXXV. :—

> "I hate and love: wherefore, I cannot tell,
> But by my tortures know the fact too well."—
> (*Theodore Martin.*)

As each fresh rival charmed the inconstant Clodia, it seems to have been the habit of the doting Catullus, after attempts to detach his rival or hold fast his mistress failed, to resort to the most personal "Iambics," as he

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styles (not from their metre, but their scurrility) his attacks upon the teeth of Egnatius, the incests of Clodius, the current weaknesses of character attributed by rumour to Cœlius, Gellius, and the rest, whom Clodia favoured. It is due to Schwabe to say that he is very happy in arriving at very likely identifications of each of these rivals, and in approximating, through an examination of the dates of Clodia's *liaisons* with each, the dates of those poems and epigrams, which refer to them directly or indirectly. Indeed the most striking feature in these "Quæstiones Catullianæ" is the skill with which a chronological arrangement of the love poems and lampoons of Catullus is constructed, from a regard had to the phases of his love, the inconstancy of Lesbia, and the brief periods of her favour to the poet's rivals, one after other. Hence this volume must be very useful to any who may contemplate the systematic study of one of the most poetic spirits of ancient Rome; and indeed a *sine quâ non* to any intending editor.

The other chapters will be found exceedingly interesting, particularly that relating to Cæsar and his friends (c. ix.), and the 14th chapter, which touches on certain poems and their dates. And it is no small praise to the portion of M. Schwabe's work which has come to our hand, that his service to Catullus and the classification of his poems reminds us strongly (though at an interval of excellence) of the incomparable services of Welcker in the rearrangement of the poems of Theognis.

Miltoni Comus. Græce reddidit. GEORGIUS, BARO LYTTELTON. Macmillan: 1863.

NOTHING is more common than to hear ridicule heaped upon the practice of making schoolboys devote time and pains to Greek Iambics: and it must be confessed that the exercise seldom becomes pleasant enough by use, to insure its continuance beyond the B.A. degree. Yet, even thus, it is not all "labour lost." Beside the mental discipline afforded, a further gain from such exercises is the necessitated minute examination of passages of standard English given for translation, and the closer study of our own poets resulting therefrom. But where, as in the case of Lord Lyttelton, the practice is cherished as a pleasure and relaxation at least a score of years beyond the days when it was a task, we seem to see most fully the sound forethought of the planners of our public school curriculum, in admitting this class of composition into their scheme. The faculty of translating Milton into tragic senarii may not be absolutely essential to scholarship, or to after-eminence; yet it has its undeniable recommendations, if it helps a finer appreciation of our own language, and the best of our poets; if it indirectly influences our taste and composition; and if it possesses a lasting charm for those who have so far cultivated scholarship as to be able to write and read Greek poetry.

Setting aside these recommendations, we should still uphold the phenomenon which the elegant volume before us presents, as a spur to our youth to the achievement of laurels in this field. It is not every man, whatever his opportunities, or cultivation of mind, that can retain his classical tastes so freshly and so long, as to be able to publish a Greek version of Milton's Comus in the week in which he celebrates his eldest son's coming of age. In doing so, Lord Lyttelton seems to teach those of a younger generation not to despise the aim at excellence even in fields wherein not much perceptible fruit is to be gathered. He teaches, too, the virtue of accuracy, in his manifestly careful revision of such parts of his translation as were composed long ago; and, in the more recently written portion of it, shows what a complete command of words, phrases, and turns of speech arises from a continued perusal of the works of the Greek tragedians.

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Though here and there he rises to something of an Æschylean flight, we should say his model has been Euripides, whose gnomic sentences and manner are closely akin to the didactic style of Milton. Perhaps in the choruses this is not the case, though in these he has frequently taken for imitation some special ode from the Hippolytus, Alcestis, or other Euripidean plays.

It is almost needless to say that Lord Lyttleton's execution of this self-imposed task is not a whit behind the best of his exercises in the Arundines Cami, and in the volume of translations which he and Mr. Gladstone published conjointly. And this is saying a great deal, when we take into account the length of the present translation, as compared with its predecessors. One or two quotations from it will, however, justify our statement, and in laying them before the reader, we must add that there are many gems of equal value in the casket whence these are taken.

We will first quote some Iambics (453-463 in the English, 531-542 in the Greek version) :—

> " So dear to Heaven is saintly chastity,
> That, when a soul is found sincerely so,
> A thousand liveried angels lacquey her,
> Driving far off each thing of sin and guilt,
> And in clear dream and solemn vision,
> Tell her of things that no gross ear can hear;
> Till oft converse with heavenly habitants
> Begins to cast a beam on th' outward shape,
> The unpolluted temple of the mind,
> And turns it by degrees to the soul's essence,
> Till all be made immortal."
>
> Τόσον δὲ καὶ φιλοῦσιν ἀγνείαν θεοὶ
> ὥστ', εἰ τὸ δῶρον νηπρεκῶς κεκτημένην
> ψυχήν τιν' εὕροι, μυρίους δουλοπρεπεῖ
> πέμπουσι θητεύσοντας ἀγγέλους στολῇ,
> ἀλιτρίας τε πανθ' ἁπώσοντας τύπου.
> τρανεῖ δὲ σεμνῶν φασμάτων ἐνυπνίῳ
> φωνοῦσ', ἃ φαύλοις ὦσιν οὐκ ἔστιν κλύειν·
> τέλος δὲ, συχνὴ δαιμόνων ὁμιλία
> καὶ τοῦθ' ὁρατὸν ἦρξατ' αἰγάζειν δέμας,
> φρενῶν ἄχραντον τέμενος, ἔστ' ἂν οἱ φύσιν
> ψυχῆς βροτείας ἀντὶ τῆς μορφῆς δίδῳ,
> κἄφθαρτον ᾖ τὸ πᾶν.

We will but pause to notice the 3d and 4th, and 6th and 7th verses of the Greek as singularly happy versions, and proceed to quote from the first ode in the volume a translation of some lines so well known that it may suffice to give the first and last alone of the English. See p. 16, v. 101-110 :—

> " ' Meanwhile welcome Joy and Feast" to
> With their grave saws in slumber lie."
>
> χαῖρ' οὖν Θαλία, χαῖρ' Εὐφροσύνα,
> Κῶμοί τε, Βοᾷ θ' ἁ μεσονύκτιος,
> οἰνοπλάνητόν τ' ὄρχημ' ἄπονον
> πλέκετ' ἐν ῥοδίῳ πλέγματι χαίταν
> χρίσμασιν ὑγρὰν, ὑγρὰν Βρομίῳ·
> νῦν γε τὸ Σεμνὸν κατὰ κοιμᾶται,
> τό τε Νουθεσίας ὄμμα περίσσοφρον
> ἀπαρόμυθον δ' εὕδει Γήρας,
> χὰ Σωφροσύνα, δριμεῖα θεὰ,
> σοφίαν θρυλοῦσα ματαίαν.

None will deny that these verses echo the sense and spirit of the original; and though line upon line might be quoted to show that Lord Lyttelton's

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version is full of an abundance of beautiful renderings from the English into Greek, we prefer to close our notice with the two samples given above. And this not without a hope that enough has been said to induce many to procure the volume, which is in printing, paper, and general getting-up, a credit to its publishers. Quondam cultivators of the Greek Iambic will experience something of old delight, and the sensation of rejuvenescence, in the perusal of Comus done into Greek; and those who are still occupied in such practice at school or at college will, we are persuaded, have to thank us for having indicated to them a very admirable specimen of what translation ought to be, and of what it is in competent hands.

Lessons in Latin Prose. By W. W. BRADLEY, M.A., late Demy of Magdalen College, Oxford. Longmans: 1863.

THESE rules and exercises fulfil their professed purpose, of "forming an easy introduction to the writing of continuous Latin prose," as completely as any manual we know. The author cleaves to the terminology of his own school days, and shows sound discretion in avoiding extravagant coinage of new words to denote familiar cases and constructions, and in aiming rather at making old-fashioned terms serve their purpose, by aid of illustration and explanation. In some cases he may almost be said to err on the side of explaining too much and too minutely. For example, we could conceive some little indignation on the part of the majority of any well-taught class, into the hands of which this book might fall, at Mr. Bradley's deeming it necessary to point out to them that "a nominative participle" and "an ablative absolute" must be distinguished, and at his supposing that any "tyro," however raw, would translate "The king having been betrayed by his slaves is put to death," by "Rege a servis suis tradito interficitur" (*cf.* p. 179-80). Careless as we know boys to be, we never yet came across such a blunder. This excess of caution, however, may illustrate the care exhibited by the author throughout his lessons in Latin prose to guard against the contingency of error, by explanation, distinction, and simplification of all processes in Latin writing, which could present a difficulty. The arrangement of the book is good; proceeding as it does, upwards, from simple continuous sentences (into which that bugbear, the subjunctive mood, is not permitted to enter) to paragraphs of long and varied character, presenting more difficult points respecting tenses, moods, and constructions. We have paid some attention to the handling of the Dependent Question and the Oratio Obliqua in Part II., as also the *résumé* and further elucidation of the same subjects in Part IV.; and cannot desire anything more clear than the light which Mr. Bradley brings to bear upon these difficult matters, by explanation and example. Another lesson very worthy of favourable notice is that "On the Idiom of Tenses in Latin Letters" (pp. 253-6); and so, too, is the lesson which follows next after the above, "On the Latin Calendar." It may be added, that a valuable feature in this volume of exercises is the conveyance to the learner, through the medium of observations appended to the various rules, of a vast quantity of philological information. Thus, *e.g.*, the pupil is led to distinguish the various etymology of "quin," by an observation at the close of Lesson XLVI., with which he is directed to compare Lesson XLV. obs., and Lesson LXXIII. obs. 2. b. In one set of cases *quin* = *qui* (in the nominative, and sometimes the accusative and ablative cases) and *non*. In another *quin* = *quî* the old ablative of the relative, and *ne*, "not." In a third, it is compounded of *quî*, the ablative of the interrogative *quis*, and *ne* as above. These and hundreds of such like distinctions are well put and

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aptly illustrated. The examples for translation consist mainly of versions from Cicero, Cæsar, and Livy, of passages and sentences happily selected and rendered.

A close examination of this volume will, we are sure, convince those who are interested in teaching that it is worthy to rank, in point of excellence, with the author's former boon to the cause of Latin prose composition; we mean his "Latin Prose Exercises," constructed on the model of "Ellis," upon which, however, they are an immense improvement. When those exercises first appeared, we remember that they were recognised as a capital aid to Latin writing by hard-working schoolboys, but considered "awkward customers that could not be shirked" by idle lads. Like merit pervades this second book by Mr. Bradley. With pains it is easy to master it, and to gather from it a sound insight into Latin prose composition. Without pains, a perfunctory scholar will find it hard to avoid publishing his ignorance of its lessons, notes, and details.

It is a pity so useful a book abounds in misprints. In p. 108 we find "laudavit" for "laudaret" after *ut!* In p. 123, "vestit" is written, where we should read "vertit;" and in p. 128, "recifiamus" for "reficiamus." Will authors never give their minds to press-correction? In a second edition, which we predict will soon be called for, these blemishes must be guarded against.

Platonis Phaedo. The Phaedo of Plato. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by W. D. Geddes, M.A., Professor of Greek in the University of Aberdeen. Williams & Norgate. 1863.

We must confess we opened this volume with not a little misgiving, for it is the first Scottish edition of a Greek author of any pretension—and Scotland's Greek learning has as yet not achieved any particular reputation for itself—and we remembered a Greek Grammar, published some years ago by Mr. Geddes, which did not impress us very favourably with the author's conception of what a Greek Grammar ought to be. But even a cursory glance at this edition of Plato's famous dialogue on the Immortality of the Soul considerably modified our opinion of the editor's skill and scholarship. Further examination has convinced us that Professor Geddes need not fear a comparison of his performance with that of any English edition of a Greek author. He is thoroughly conversant with the labours of German scholars on this and kindred subjects—and need we say it, that at present the high-road to Greek learning runs through Germany?—he possesses as good a knowledge of the Greek language as any Oxonian, and shows a capacity for philosophic reasoning by no means common even among our best scholars.

The text which Mr. Geddes has followed in the main is that of K. F. Hermann; he has, however, not adopted his reasonings with that implicit faith which is so common with unthinking editors, but has exercised his own judgment throughout, so that we here have a text as good and correct as can be expected in the case of any ancient author. The task of constituting his text, however, was rendered comparatively easy by the fact that the manuscripts of this dialogue are freer from the corruptions and blunders of transcribers than many others. The notes accompanying the text are critical, exegetical, and historical. They are neither too few nor too many, and are well calculated to furnish the student with everything he can reasonably demand to lead him to a thorough understanding of the author, and to a right comprehension of the arguments brought forward. Some points which could not be conveniently explained in foot-notes, but yet require minute investiga-

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tion, if a right understanding of the author and his subject is to be arrived at, are discussed in appendices, or short essays, twenty-one in number. Some of these are extremely interesting and instructive, such as those "On phases of ancient feeling towards death;" "Ancient views on suicide;" "On the dogma of metempsychosis;" "On pre-existence and reminiscence;" "On the Attic group of birds, and the song of the swan;" "On the asseveration of Socrates, νὴ τὸν κύνα;" "On poisoning by hemlock." An introduction, containing an analysis of the Phaedo, from pp. ix. to xxxi., and good Greek and English indices, complete this excellent volume. We have read the book with unmixed pleasure and satisfaction, and trust that it may serve as a stimulus to young men of talent and scholarship to prove to the world that classical learning in Scotland is not dead, but only requires encouragement, and the fostering care of the public, to rise to that position which we so much admire in their more favoured southern neighbours.

II. MATHEMATICAL.

Practical and Spherical Astronomy, for the use chiefly of Students in the Universities. By the Rev. ROBERT MAIN, M.A., F.R.S., F.R.A.S., Ratcliffe Observer at Oxford. Cambridge: Deighton, Bell, & Co. London: Bell & Daldy. 1863.

THIRTY-SEVEN years have elapsed since the publication of Maddy's *Plane Astronomy*, and the work is still a standard work on the subject. But it must not be supposed that practical astronomy has been stationary all this time. On the contrary, new methods of observing, new instruments, and new fields of research have wrought great and important changes in the aspect of our observatories. But until a year or two ago, when the author of the present treatise published a translation of part of Brunnow's *Spherical Astronomy*, the student had no text-book brought up to the advanced state of the science. The number of persons fitted to produce such a text-book is indeed somewhat limited. Mr. Main is certainly one of those persons, and we rejoice that he has come forward, though, as we gather from his preface, somewhat unwillingly, to supply a pressing want. Nor can we doubt that his ample experience of a quarter of a century in the Greenwich Observatory, added to that of his present position as Ratcliffe Observer at Oxford, will have furnished him with materials sufficient to supply the demands of existing astronomy.

The general reader should be informed that it is the author's object to deal with the methods rather than with the results of astronomy. Many of the latter, especially the more recent discoveries, are, it is true, developed; but for the more familiar facts the reader must refer to popular treatises. What the present work supplies will be gathered from the following extract from the preface:—"The principal object of the writer has been to include, both in the practical and theoretical portions of the volume, all the mathematical processes which will enable the reader to understand the operations of a modern observatory, furnished with the ordinary meridional and extra-meridional instruments, so that he might readily acquire, if called upon to do so, by actual practice in an observatory, the additional and more minute details which occur in the making and reducing of observations. . . . It is hoped that there is scarcely a process which is used at Greenwich or our other great English observatories which is left unexplained, and that a student will be enabled, by the help of this treatise, and by suitable tables, to reduce every class of observations which will be found in their annals, or to examine

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the accuracy of their results." Accordingly, the matters treated of are the instruments and their use, the reduction of the observations for parallax, refraction, etc., the deduction of the mean places of the stars, and their arrangement in catalogues, the discussion of the fundamental zeros, such as the position of the ecliptic and the equinox, the discussion of the planetary observations, and the way in which those observations are used for the correction of the elements of the orbit. And the results are given in connexion with the mathematical theories, and illustrated by actual computations. The reduction of eclipses and occultations of the stars is also given in a shape fit for the mathematical student, together with some original methods, such as that of finding the "position of the corresponding point" in an occultation, and of computing by a direct process (p. 355) the position of the cusps in a solar eclipse.

We have already stated that it does not come within the scope of the present treatise to exhibit all the striking conclusions of astronomy. Some, however, of those conclusions, of recent interest, are fully developed. We shall refer to one of these.

The unit of the solar system, and indeed of the stellar system too, has recently been under review, and the results arrived at are as interesting as they are important. It will be remembered that our countryman James Gregory first suggested the use of observations of the transits of Mercury and Venus across the sun's disc for the determination of the distance of the sun from the earth. It occurred to him that observers at different parts of the earth's surface would see the transit take place across different parts of the sun, and thus establish a connexion between the size of the one body and the relative distances of the other two. But it was reserved for the great astronomer Halley to lay this before the world in a practical shape. He, however, saw little hope of results to be deduced from observations of transits of Mercury; but he directed the attention of astronomers to the two transits of Venus, which, long after he should be gathered to his fathers, should occur in the years 1761 and 1769. Somehow or other, little resulted from the transit of 1761, but eight years later all Europe was astir. It was necessary to bestride the world at once, or more than a century would be lost. The nations sent out their best astronomers north and south, to make the diameter of the earth their great base line. England contributed her share in the expedition under Captain Cook. Every one knows the result. The distance of the sun was determined, as it appeared, to a nicety. From Encke's discussion of the observations, *the parallax comes out* 8".5776 *making the distance of the sun from the earth* 95,000,000 *miles*. It was a great era in astronomy, and, up to a very recent date, no doubt was entertained of the substantial accuracy of the conclusion. But confidence has been of late somewhat shaken. Not indeed to such an extent as to condemn the observations of 1769, but certainly to an extent to render the occurrence of the next transit (December 8, 1874) an event to be awaited with intense interest. The story is as follows (p. 196):—At the last opposition of Mars in 1862, great pains were taken to secure good co-operation of different observatories for the deduction of the parallax of that planet, and therefore, with more or less correctness, that of the sun. The observations which were made at the different northern and southern observatories have not all been given to the public, but comparisons have been made between the results of observations of two northern and two southern observatories, which agree in showing that the received value of the solar parallax must be considerably increased. In the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, No. 1409, for example, M. Winnecke, one of the astronomers of the Russian observatory at Pulkowa, gives the results of thirteen observations of declination of Mars made at that observatory, compared with those made at the observatory of

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Santiago de Chili, by M. Moesta, and finds that the resulting solar parallax is 8".964. Also, in the *Monthly Notices* of the Royal Astronomical Society, is a paper by Mr. Stone, first assistant of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, in which he gives the results of comparison between twenty-two observations of declinations of Mars and comparison-stars, made at Greenwich and at Williamstown (Victoria), Australia; *and the resulting solar parallax is in this case* 8".92.

Again, M. Le Verrier has recently made a re-determination of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, and Mars, and found that it was impossible to represent the motions of the perihelia of Mercury and Mars, and of the nodes of Venus, so as to make them agree with observation (assuming the received value of the solar parallax) without an inadmissible increase of the values of the planetary masses. In his discussion of his results given in a paper in the *Comptes Rendus* of January 6, 1862, he states that an increase of the mass of the earth, by about one-tenth part, would get rid of nearly all the discrepancies between theory and observation; but he observes that there is a difficulty in the way of this alteration, *unless the solar parallax were increased by about one-thirtieth part, making it about* 8".93.

In the meanwhile, M. Foucault was engaged in endeavouring to determine by experiment the actual velocity of light, by means of an apparatus consisting of a series of reflecting mirrors, one of which was made to revolve uniformly with a very great velocity; and the conclusion at which he arrived was, that the velocity of light was considerably less than its received value, as deduced originally from the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. And as this latter velocity is dependent on the assumed unit of distance of the solar system, M. Foucault thus found that it would be necessary to *increase the sun's parallax by about one-thirtieth part, and his deduced value was actually* 8".86. These three adverse conclusions, by methods so independent of each other, seem to unite in proving the incorrectness of the parallax which was deduced from the transit of Venus of 1769, and they require us to reduce the distance of the sun from 95 millions, to something less than 92 millions of miles.

We conclude by recommending the work to all who wish to become acquainted with astronomy as a practical science. The book is written in a clear and simple manner, so as to be readily mastered, whilst the eminence of the author and his long experience are the best guarantees of the soundness of his treatment of the subject.

Sketch of Elementary Dynamics. By W. Thomson and P. G. Tait. Edinburgh: Maclachlan and Stewart. 1863.

Helsham, in the first of his lectures on Natural Philosophy, published a little more than a century ago, whilst rejoicing at the advances which the science had made in his own time as compared with former ages, asserts, "that in some of its branches, Natural Philosophy *at this day is almost complete in all its parts.*" This fancied completeness of the science in all its parts must have been a comfortable doctrine to teachers, and may have served as an excuse to popular writers to continue, year after year and generation after generation, the same story. But the time came when the fancied completeness vanished into air. First heat, and then light, and in its turn electricity, became a new science, and the old books on natural philosophy had to be re-cast. But mechanics, the fundamental branch and basis of all, that, at any rate, has remained in a comfortably quiescent state, so that a modern writer might even take old Helsham himself and cook him up with fashionable sauce as a dish of mechanical philosophy. And so it has come to pass that A's elementary treatise has differed little from B's statics or C's dynamics.

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The little pamphlet of Messrs. Thomson and Tait ought then, according to precedent and to the stationary theory, to be compounded of Poisson and Whewell. We rejoice to say it is nothing of the kind. The authors have had the hardihood to dissipate the theory, and to burst through the old barriers. They have furnished us with an outline which, when filled up and expanded in their forthcoming treatise on Natural Philosophy, will commence an era in the exposition of the mechanical sciences.

The pamphlet consists of only 44 pages, intended, as the authors state, for the use of their classes in the session 1863-4. On every page we meet with a novelty, an innovation. First comes the division of the subject of dynamics into statics and kinetics; *i.e.*, into the action of *force* in maintaining rest, and the action of *force* in producing or changing motion. The circumstances of mere motion are ranked under kinematics. These are hard words —kinetics and kinematics; but the advance of science demands epithets which shall distinguish between force and its effects, the movers and the movements.

The authors have taken pains to make their pamphlet as popular as possible. But the extreme brevity of treatment, and the broad views they take, render the book anything but easy or simple. It is, however, accessible to those who are not conversant with the higher mathematics. Art. 20, for example, is a beautiful demonstration, without the use of limits, of the law of acceleration, when a body moves uniformly in a circular path. We commend it to all earnest students, promising that it will require attention and thought, which it will amply repay. The argument is based on Sir W. R. Hamilton's *hodograph*. The same argument is again (Art. 109) applied to the inversion of Newton's 11th Proposition, viz., to show that when central force varies inversely as the square of the distance, the moving particle describes an ellipse (or other conic section). But it is hopeless to attempt to convey an idea of the daring way in which our authors have reconstructed everything they have laid their hands on. Even the *centre of gravity* has been disturbed, and its place supplied by the centre of inertia. Dr. T. Young made the same change in his Lectures, and for the same reasons. As, however, the phrase, "centre of gravity," inappropriate as it may be, has come to have a popular signification, we suspect our authors will find it a difficult matter to thrust it out. An established phrase has its rights and privileges, as well as its duties. Why, the late distinguished philosopher, Sir W. Hamilton, asserts that the very title under which Messrs. Thomson and Tait write, as professors of Natural Philosophy, is a complete misnomer. He tells us that Hegel looked over the volumes of the Philosophical Transactions, and declared he found in them no philosophy at all. And yet "Natural Philosophy" is likely to hold its own. But if our authors should fail in this particular, we cannot hesitate to predict their full success in many greater matters. Their masterly exposition of Newton's Laws of Motion, in which his claim to the foundation of the doctrine of *Energy* is established, and the doctrine itself made plain, is a sample of the powers which these gentlemen possess, and a guarantee of the revolution which their forthcoming larger work is sure to effect.

The Civil Service Arithmetic. By ROBERT JOHNSTON, Author of the "School Arithmetic," etc. London: Longmans. 1863.

HERE is a novelty in arithmetic books. The Civil Service Arithmetic, dedicated by permission to Sir Robert Peel, in terms which must be very gratifying to Sir Robert, at least if he is fond of flattery. From the dedication we turn to the preface, where we are informed that "the system of

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competitive examination introduced into the Civil Service has rendered a modification in the character of most of our elementary school-books absolutely necessary." We are very sorry to hear this, as it involves the conclusion that education and examination are running counter to one another. We should be sorry, indeed, to believe that the Civil Service examinations on any subject, most of all on arithmetic, assume such a peculiar or professional aspect as to render a special course of study necessary for them. The statement of Mr. Johnston, however, does not cause us any real alarm. We are tolerably familiar with the reports of the Civil Service Commissioners, and we can assure our readers that the papers set on arithmetic are very proper and ordinary papers, such as a youth who has mastered any of our best treatises on arithmetic, need not fear to encounter. Looked at in this light, then the work before us is a mistake. But there is another view of the matter in which it will appear more favourably. Civil Service examinations have now gone on for several years, and the papers which have accumulated will furnish a tolerably fair specimen of questions fitted to draw out an average amount of skill in every branch of arithmetic. The author has availed himself of these questions to the full; he tells us that his work contains one thousand three hundred of them, with solutions of some of the most difficult. In glancing over these solutions, we see little to blame, except the author's want of the Rule-of-Three, in which, we are bound to say, he does not stand alone. The Civil Service Commissioners are very fond of profit and loss, and percentages. On turning to this branch of the work we find Mr. Johnston selecting the following as one of the examples for solution:—"By selling cloth at the rate of 12s. per yard, £15 per cent. was gained. What per cent. would be gained when it was sold at the rate of 10s. 6d. per yard?" The Commissioners, no doubt, expected the statement of the question to be this: If *receipts* of 12s. *amount* to £115, then *receipts* of 10s. 6d. will *amount* to £100$\frac{5}{8}$, leaving £$\frac{5}{8}$, or 12s. 6d. per cent., of profit, without any work at all, or at least any but what can be effected mentally in ten seconds. This very simple question the author has broken into three distinct and troublesome operations (p. 156). He must have felt greatly delighted when it issued forth right after such a tossing. The tables of weights, measures, and money appear to be complete and good. There is, however, a blunder (due probably to the printing) about the weight of a sovereign. The Mint price of standard gold is £3, 17s. 10½d. per oz. Troy. Of this fact the *Times* newspaper reminds its readers every morning in its money article. Agreeably to this we perceive that 1869 sovereigns should weigh 40 lbs. Troy, and, we believe, the Mint issues them of that exact weight, charging nothing for its work. The weight of a sovereign is therefore 123$\frac{171}{223}$ grains, or, in popular langnage, it turns the scale with 123 grains. Mr. Johnston states the weight of a sovereign (p. 24) at 127 grains and a fraction.

We have only to add, that as the Annual Reports of the Civil Service Commissioners are charged 2s. 3d., Mr. Johnston's little book is likely to find many purchasers amongst those who are preparing for examination, and are anxious to obtain the questions set in past years at a small cost.

First Steps to Euclid: comprising the Propositions of Book I. in a form adapted for being written out. By A. K. Isbister, M.A., Head-Master of Stationers' School. London: Longmans. 1863.

The object of this book is, as the title indicates, to facilitate writing out. With this view the different steps in a demonstration are arranged in separate lines, so that cause and consequence rest on each other. This is all very well, and we may assume that Mr. Isbister's experience as a teacher and an

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examiner justifies him in throwing the work into its present form. We have only two objections to the thing. One is, that the excessive use of symbols or contractions is calculated to operate injuriously on a lad's English, especially when he is encouraged to write down the symbols for *because* and *therefore* in endless succession. The symbol for *therefore* occurs five times in Prop. I. Our other objection is, that an inordinate saving of words seems likely to render portions of the book, especially the recapitulations of the steps of the demonstrations, unintelligible to a beginner.

III.—MISCELLANEOUS.

An English Grammar. By ALEXANDER BAIN, M.A., Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. London: Longmans. 1863.

IN one aspect of it, we regard the publication of this book as a notable sign of the times. It has been composed, its author tells us, "with more particular reference to the class of English composition (attached to the Chair of Logic) in the University of Aberdeen." This class has been commenced in compliance with an ordinance of the recent Scottish Universities' Commission, requiring all candidates for the Arts' degree to attend a course of lectures on the English language and English literature. In Edinburgh and Glasgow there are separate chairs of this subject; in St. Andrews and Aberdeen it is attached to the Chair of Logic. The book, therefore, may be regarded as the first fruits of the new arrangement, which seeks to promote in the Northern Universities that more exact study of the mother tongue, for which modern research, and the progress of the science of language, have afforded so many facilities. At the same time, it cannot but strike us as strange that a book, more than half of which is devoted to the parts of speech and syntax—the very elements of the subject,—should be prepared expressly for students attending a University. This fact is not calculated to convey a very elevated notion of the kind of work prosecuted in Scottish colleges. We suppose we must ascribe it to the circumstance that, though an improvement in this respect has now set in, these colleges are frequented to a considerable extent by mere boys, and discharge, towards a large proportion of the people, the functions of upper schools. At the same time, it should be known that there are in Scotland schools not a few in which the studies in English, as in Latin and Greek, are carried quite as high as in the Universities; but it would seem that by these Professor Bain's class does not much benefit. He has doubtless also constructed his book in the hope that in course of time its introduction into the preparatory schools in the neighbourhood of Aberdeen may render it unnecessary for him to expend his time upon what is certainly in a great measure school work.

Of the book itself, as a text-book suitable for the upper classes in schools, we are prepared to speak in the highest terms. It is very full of explanations; the explanations are always clear, and the illustrations pointed. A keenly logical intellect is apparent in every paragraph. The book contains all the results of the recent more accurate study of the language; but there is a fresh tone and original air about it, which remove it as far as possible from the category of mere compilations. There are several points in which, did our space permit, we should be prepared to join issue with Mr. Bain; but on the whole these points are much fewer than in any other English Grammar that has recently come under our notice. Amongst the sections which appear most satisfactory, we may specially direct attention to those on the classification of nouns; the classes of pronouns; the meanings of "who," "which," "what;" the classification of clauses, and the order of words.

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The first of these subjects is more logical than grammatical, and Mr. Bain's analysis of it is eminently sound; but we question whether subdivisions of such extent and subtilty are desirable for the ordinary purposes of grammar. As for the lists of Scotticisms, many of these are old law terms which have crept into the current speech, and should hardly be stigmatized as "wrong." For not a few others we might quote the authority of Shakespeare; but perhaps he picked them up during the visit which, according to Charles Knight, he paid to Aberdeen. Who can tell?

English Grammar: for the use of the Junior Classes in Schools. By the Rev. WILLIAM KIRKUS, LL.B. London: Longmans. 1863.

THIS is precisely the kind of book to strike a cursory critic as "a good idea." It professes "to supply in as simple a form as possible what every little child who is able to read should know about English Grammar,"—a very praiseworthy object indeed. In this, however, it is very doubtful whether the author has at all succeeded. The author's remarks are in simple enough language, and his illustrations—such as that of John putting on his hat to indicate the possessive case—are certainly level to the comprehension of "every little child who is able to read." But the grammatical facts and rules are quite as difficult and nearly as numerous as those given to far more advanced pupils. The very first thing which the "little child" has to commit to memory is that "Grammar is the science which treats of a speech or language." Then syntax, etymology, and orthography are defined. Next he has to swallow the logical distinction of common, proper, and abstract nouns; and he has to learn all the exceptional genders; six rules for forming the plural of nouns; the comparison of adjectives, and five kinds of pronouns, before he is even told what a verb is! At this stage our "little child" has to get by heart rules defining subject, predicate, and copula; substantive, transitive, and intransitive verbs; voice, mood, tense, number, and person. In the paradigm of the verb itself, he has to get up two voices, four moods, and a gerund, and nine primary and four compound tenses, finishing with the "future-perfect of continued action,—I should have been being loved." We have said enough to show that, however good this book may be in itself, as a book for "every little child who is able to read" it is a signal and cruel blunder.

The History of India, from the Earliest Ages to the Proclamation of Victoria in 1858. By the Rev. ROBERT HUNTER, M.A., formerly Missionary at Nagpore. London: T. Nelson and Sons. 1863.

THE success of a writer of a school history should be measured by his power to make his narrative interesting and attractive, as well as instructive. In applying this test to the work before us, we shall not select the author's treatment of the recent history of India. These times are too full of sad and thrilling interest to thousands still living to require much artificial attractiveness to be thrown into their annals. But with the early history of the country the case is different. It requires, we suspect, a pretty strong motive to induce any one to study those remote and perplexing times. As here, however, Mr. Hunter encountered the greatest difficulties, so here also he has achieved his greatest success. He has contrived to make the chapters on the Hindu period quite as interesting and useful as any other section of the work. The reason of this appears to lie chiefly in the author's intimate acquaintance with his subject, and in his clear perception of what such a book should contain. Mr. Hunter adds to his personal experience of India, a complete command of

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all the best sources of information on every part of his subject—philological, ethnological, theological, geographical, social, and historical in the stricter sense. The book is therefore a thorough book as regards its matter. The style also is clear and forcible, with a touch of quaintness which will not be lost upon young minds. The sketch of the late rebellion is admirably drawn—with much calmness and judgment, and at the same time with vividness and force.

Such a history of India as this was much needed. It will do a vast deal of good in diffusing sound and accurate views regarding both the past and the present of our Indian empire.

Outlines of English History, from the Roman Invasion, B.C. 55, *to the Year* A.D. 1863. By EVAN DANIEL, Vice-Principal of the Training College, Battersea. London: The National Society's Depository. 1863.

THE author of this book (which we previously commended in its serial form) has acted wisely in endeavouring to relieve the tedium of a dry and condensed narrative, by introducing anecdotes, and illustrative passages from recognised historians. The book is clearly and usefully arranged; and it admits of being gone over twice, by the expedient of printing the least necessary and simply illustrative portions in a smaller type than the regular history, which may therefore be reserved for the second perusal. In some parts, the narrative suffers by its too great compression. This is especially conspicuous in the account of the reign of her present Majesty. The work has been specially designed for upper classes in national and trade schools, and for pupil teachers and monitors in the early stage of their education.

A Practical Synopsis of English History, or a General Summary of Dates and Events, for the use of Schools, Families, and Candidates for Public Examinations. By ARTHUR BOWES. Fourth Edition. London: Bell and Daldy. 1863.

THE character of Mr. Bowes' useful summary of English History is too well known to require a detailed description at our hands. We have always considered its clear and simple arrangement, aided greatly by its beautiful type, one of its chief recommendations. The present edition (the 4th) brings down the narrative to the year 1863, and the discovery of the Source of the Nile. We can never recommend a book of this sort without uttering a warning against its abuse. It should not be used by itself, as a cram-book. These skeleton summaries should always be used along with a flesh-and-blood history.

A Class-Book of Scripture History. By Rev. ROBERT DEMAUS, M.A. Edinburgh: A. and C. Black. 1863.

"THE author of the present work has the usual apology to offer for introducing it to the public." He has failed to find a suitable text-book for his own classes, and has constructed one for himself, and for the public. We wish the "long-felt desideratum" which usually calls school-books into existence, were always as well founded as in this case. We wish, too, that it were always as well supplied. The book is an excellent, and, we have no doubt will be, a serviceable compilation. It contains a useful summary of the contents of the books of Scripture; the matter is well arranged and well

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expressed; and it contains, besides, much useful information on points not usually embraced in such works. We can recommend it either for class or for home use; and teachers who do not put any book but the Bible into the hands of their pupils, will find it for themselves a useful guide and aid.

School and Home; or Leaves from a Boy's Journal. A Tale for School-Boys. By the Author of "England's Daybreak," etc. Second Edition. London: Seeley, Jackson, and Halliday. 1864.

We never happened to see the first edition of this book; but when an authoress allows her publisher to put "1864" as the title-page of a book published in October 1863, we can hardly be blamed for hinting the bare possibility of "Second Edition" having been put there by anticipation also. In ordinary cases, we should not have referred to this publishing trick; but in the case of a religious book, intended to warn boys against every phase of deceit or double-dealing, we cannot but think the seeming conflict of precept and practice very unfortunate. The author's purpose is to apply to schoolboy life the lessons of the book of Proverbs; and as she thinks boys are averse to reading serious books, she tries to insinuate her lessons in the shape of a "story." We might again hint that there is something like a "dodge" here, which schoolboys will be the first to discover and appreciate; but it is more to the purpose to say, that boys are likely to take their revenge by gleaning from the book whatever of "story" it may contain, and leaving the application for their seniors. We hardly think that, where the separation has been effected, schoolboys will find very much to interest them. The plan of the book is clumsy, that of a joint journal kept by the ideal hero, Herbert Oliver, and his mother alternately. The style is loose and highly colloquial; and, in short, as a mere tale, it falls immeasurably below "Tom Brown," and "St. Winifred's," and the standard novels of school life. It is painful to have to write thus of a work, the object of which, and of its pious author, is so eminently good. We can only regret that the execution has fallen so far short of the author's praiseworthy design.

English and French Exercises for Advanced Pupils, containing the Principal Rules of French Syntax, numerous French and English Exercises on Rules and Idioms, arranged progressively; and an Index of nearly 4000 *Idiomatical Verbs and Sentences, familiar Phrases and Proverbs, with Notes and Explanations.* By C. A. Chardenal, B.A. of the University of France, French Master in the Glasgow Athenæum. Second Edition. Glasgow: David Robertson, 90, St. Vincent Street. London: Longmans. 1863.

The above is the title-page of a manual admirably adapted for those who are learning to speak French with the aid of a master; and we have reprinted it entire, because it is an accurate description of the contents. Conversational French is not that of the epos or drama, of history, or of miscellaneous literary extracts. Those who have not the opportunity of gathering it as it falls from the lips of the French themselves, must pick it up in the form of just such phrases as M. Chardenal has indexed for use in the mimic conversations which he carries on with his pupils. Years after French conversation had become a pleasure to the writer of this notice, he was completely put out on one occasion by a Frenchman saying of some two proposals: "C'est jus vert ou verjus"—*Anglicè*, "It's six and half-a-dozen." M. Chardenal anticipates a host of similar dilemmas.

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The National Association for the Promotion of Social Science: Report of Proceedings at the Seventh Annual Congress, held in Edinburgh, October 1863. Edinburgh: W. P. Nimmo. 1863.

The publisher of this handy and well-printed volume deserves great credit for the promptitude with which he has given to the public the proceedings of the late Congress of the Social Science Association, in a collected form. It consists of the reports which appeared from day to day in the *Scotsman* newspaper; and as these were both full and tolerably accurate, this volume may be relied upon as giving the essence of the proceedings of the Congress in a more manageable shape than the bulky official volume of *Transactions*. The presidents' addresses are given *verbatim*, and the abstracts of the papers read were, in many cases, provided or revised by the authors. Prefixed to these proceedings is a spirited portrait and a readable memoir of Lord Brougham.

Middle-Class Atlas for Junior Students. Middle-Class Atlas for Senior Students. By Walter M'Leod, F.R.G.S. The Maps engraved by E. Weller, F.R.G.S. London: Longmans. 1863.

These convenient atlases contain all the maps required by junior and senior candidates respectively for the geographical papers of the Cambridge Local Examinations in December 1863. Our commendation of them, therefore, comes too late for this special purpose. They are, however, likely to obtain a wider patronage; and as similar series of maps are to be issued annually, we need make no apology for calling the attention of teachers to them here. The maps are engraved with great care and nicety. There is no overcrowding of the plates with unimportant details, special reference being had to the requirements of the examination. The coast-lines and rivers, as well as the directions of mountain-chains, are distinctly laid down. We are inclined to object to the smallness of the maps; a size suitable enough for Switzerland or Ireland is barely sufficient to do justice to Europe, or even to Russia. The hand-colouring, too, though faint and unobtrusive, is unequal and careless when compared with the results of chromo-lithography.

Nelson's Atlas of the World, for Senior Classes, and Families; with Divisions and Measurements in English Miles. London: T. Nelson and Sons. 1863.

The maps in this excellent and handy atlas are reductions of Nelson's wall-maps, and their peculiar features will therefore be most highly appreciated by those who use the latter. The advantages which the atlas offers, however, need by no means be confined to those who do so; it will be equally serviceable in connexion with any school-room maps, or with any text-book of geography.

The first point of difference between this atlas and its predecessors, which strikes one cursorily glancing over the maps and the table of contents, is the mode in which the countries are grouped. Instead, for example, of having one map of France, and another of Spain and Portugal, we have one plate including these three countries, as well as Switzerland and Belgium (which countries, however, we find also in other maps). No doubt the reduced scale which this arrangement necessitates is a partial disadvantage; but, seeing that the scale is still quite large enough for ordinary school purposes, the clear exhibition of the relation of these countries to each other is an unquestionable gain. For it is a not uncommon school-boy blunder (especially in

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the case of beginners) to suppose that, when two maps are of the same size, the two countries delineated are of the same size too. To a beginner who has not been thoroughly drilled in the map of Europe, Switzerland will in this way appear to be as large a country as France or Russia. This notion, however, will be more effectually dispelled by the next feature we have to notice—that which chiefly distinguishes the maps in this series—the plan of marking the measurements in all the maps in English miles.

Undoubtedly the ordinary lines of latitude and longitude marked on our school-maps are—not only in elementary classes, but even in the most advanced—of very little use, if not useless altogether. Very few schoolmasters, we believe, are at the trouble of remembering the position or relative distances of places by the latitude and the longitude; and they find the knowledge of so little use practically, even when required, that they are seldom at the pains to teach it to their pupils. The method, moreover, is confusing to young minds; for though a degree of latitude is constant in English miles, a degree of longitude varies with every degree of latitude, north or south. Thus while London and Riga are the same distance from each other in degrees of longitude, as Valencia and Salonika, the actual distance of the latter places is greater by 200 miles than that of the former. The old method, therefore, —for the purposes of elementary instruction we mean—is worse than useless; it is misleading.

The compilers of these maps, therefore, have done well and wisely in superadding to the old system (for they have retained the lines of latitude and longitude for those who wish them, or wish to compare them with actual distances) the plan of measurements in the intelligible and familiar standard of English miles. Many secondary advantages have arisen out of the mode in which the plan has been carried out.

Each map (the hemispheres excepted) consists of a square of a definite number of English miles, intersected by lines, perpendicular and horizontal, at distances of 100, or 1000, miles, as the case may be. Thus the map of Europe is a square of 4000 miles, divided into sixteen squares of 1000 miles each.

In every instance in which London appears in a map, it occupies the corner of a square, or rather the meeting point of four squares; and consequently all lines mark distances of hundreds or thousands of miles, east or west, north or south, from London. Even in cases in which London does not appear, the leading lines always mark distances from London. London is therefore the starting-point for our measurements in all directions. This idea is further carried out in the plan of drawing on the hemispheres, and maps of large area, a series of circles, with London as a common centre, at intervals of 1000 miles. Thus we can tell at a glance that the direct distance from London to Melbourne is 10,500 miles, to Buenos Ayres 7000, to Quebec 3000,—tangible ideas of which the least bright school-boy can easily lay hold. Illustrations of the utility of these arrangements might be multiplied indefinitely. One other example will suffice. It would both interest a school-boy, and be of use to him in many ways, to know how far London is from the Arctic Circle and the Tropic of Cancer respectively. Now, by the old method, it would require some skill, and a good deal of preliminary knowledge, to enable him to find this out, and when he had discovered it, the result would be in the highly intelligible form of degrees, minutes, and seconds. Looking into the atlas before us, however, he can tell at a glance that London is 1100 miles from the Arctic Circle, and 1900 from the Tropic.

We find another very useful application of the principle in the facilities it affords for comparing different countries in point of size. It is the only system under which a convenient standard of measurement can be applied to all the countries on the globe. Each map being an absolute square, a square is

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the most natural standard of measurement to adopt; and obviously the most convenient square for us to select is that of the map of England, which forms a square of 400 miles. Now, to illustrate this, let us take the map of India. It forms a square of 2000 miles, and consists, therefore, of sixteen squares of 500 miles each. Each of these sixteen squares, therefore, would contain the whole map of England (land and water), and leave a margin of 50 miles all round. A slight calculation will thus show that the area embraced in the map of India is more than nineteen times that contained in the map of England.

The comparison may be made more precisely by remembering that the actual land surface of England is equal to a square of 220 miles. But a fourth part of each of the sixteen squares in the map of India would be 250 miles square. The area of England, therefore, is less than one-fourth, and little more than one-fifth, of one of these squares; that is, the continent of India would hold it fully thirty times. Now, this is not only pleasing and ingenious, but it is extremely useful. For the ideas which young people, and indeed many old people, have regarding the comparative extent of the countries of the earth, are of the vaguest description, even when not positively erroneous.

We need only say further, that these valuable distinctive features are possessed by this atlas, in common with all the atlases and maps of the series projected by the Messrs. Nelson.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Examination Papers for the Civil Service of India, and *Further Examination Papers for the Civil Service of India*. London: Stanford. 1863.

First Principles of Arithmetic: Explained by Diagrams. By the Rev. J. C. Thiring, Uppingham.—Sent to us as containing a system similar to that explained by Mr. Henslow in his article on "Vulgar Fractions," in last Number. Mr. Thiring, however, uses spaces, instead of lines. His system is ingenious and useful.

The Gospel according to St. Matthew, with Notes. By Rev. W. Benham. National Society's Depository.—Received before, and acknowledged by us in a previous Number.

Scripture Geography. By James Hewitt. National Society's Depository.—Also previously acknowledged. The books published by this Society have no date, or other means of distinguishing new books from re-issues.

English Ballads for School Reading. Edited by Rev. W. Benham. National Society's Depository.—An excellent collection, but also dateless.

Reading Lessons for Evening Schools. National Society's Depository.—Printed in large, bold type,—unnecessarily large, when we consider the advanced nature of many of the words and lessons.

History of the Plague of London. By Daniel Defoe; and *Evenings at Home.* London: Longmans. 1863.—The latest additions to Laurie's "Entertaining Library." The illustrations are excellent. We question, however, the propriety of terrifying juvenile readers by those in the former volume.

Hand-book to the Calculator and Letter-box. By J. S. Laurie. London: Longmans. 1863.—Intended to explain the method of using, and to accompany, these material aids to the teaching of arithmetic and reading.

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First Lessons in the Life of our Lord. By Charles Wills, M.A. London: Jackson & Co. 1863.—Designed for young children in families and schools. Answers only are given; but these suggest the questions to the teacher. The book is fragmentary and uninteresting.

Extended University Sessions and Entrance Examinations. By W. F. Irvine, A.M. Edinburgh: Paton & Ritchie. 1863. *The Endowment of the Universities of Scotland an Object of National Importance.* By Rev. David Thorburn, M.A. Edinburgh: Elliot. 1863.—The substance of two speeches delivered at the last meeting of the General Council of Edinburgh University.

German Grammar, Past and Present. By Dr. Buchheim. London: Bell and Daldy. 1863.—An inaugural lecture delivered by Dr. Buchheim on entering on the Chair of the German Language in King's College, London. Learned, useful, and suggestive.

The Theory and Practice of Teaching Modern Languages in Schools. By C. H. Schaible, M.D., Ph.D. London: Trübner. 1863.—An interesting review of methods, and a clear and sound exposition of the author's system.

Prospectus of Queen's College, Liverpool. 1863-64.

Fortieth Annual Report of the Parental Academic Institution and Doveton College, Calcutta. 1863.

The Study of Greek: An Inaugural Lecture. By Rev. Lewis Campbell, M.A. Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1863.

Instruction in Elementary Social Science: An Introductory Lecture. By W. Ellis. London: Smith, Elder, & Co. 1863.—A powerful plea for the introduction of the teaching of economics into common schools.

Key to Kalisch's Hebrew Grammar, Part. I. London: Longmans. 1863.

XI.—CORRESPONDENCE.

THE REVISED CODE IN SCOTLAND.

SIR,—I trust you will kindly allow me to direct attention to some defects of the above measure, which hitherto do not seem to have received that public notice which their importance demands.

The first point I wish to advert to, is the limitation of the official estimate of results to reading, writing, and arithmetic. The higher branches are altogether ignored by the code, and attention to those subjects which constitute the most valuable means of intellectual discipline, is practically discouraged. Grammar, geography, history, and the higher appliances of education, have no place in its favourable estimation. The three initiatory stages are alone recognised and paid for, while the important duty of teaching the mind how to apply these elements to the acquisition of knowledge, appears altogether undeserving of any official acknowledgment. If the great end of education be, as is implied in the very meaning of the term, the evolution of thought, the training of the mind to habits of generalization, and the independent exercise of its powers, so as to fit it for the proper performance of its functions in the business of life, the province of the teacher includes higher responsibilities than are indicated by the meagre outline of the examination schedule. The acquisition of the elementary subjects prescribed by the code, no more satisfies the requirements of education than the posession of a mechanical tool entitles an ignorant tyro to the character of a

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skilled artisan. It is manifestly unfair, therefore, to remunerate the teacher for the results obtainable in the elementary subjects merely, while the higher functions of his office are altogether excluded from acknowledgment. Besides, in the case of Scotland, the parochial system has, from the force of circumstances, combined to a large extent the functions of the grammar-school with the means of elementary instruction, and its teachers are legally bound to supply the substantial elements of a liberal education to the children of the labouring poor, at a limited fee prescribed by the heritors. It would only therefore be bringing the code into closer harmony with our educational ideas and requirements, and at the same time be conferring an act of justice on our teachers, *were the Privy Council to institute a Seventh Standard* recognising proficiency in general knowledge as a ground of qualification for a special grant. Such a concession, while it would tend greatly to popularize the code with the public and the profession, would promote the efficiency and intellectual life of the schoolroom. It would nurture and develop the seeds which were committed to the soil during the initiatory stages, and operate powerfully to prolong the attendance of the children at school.

The second point I wish to notice is the absence of any provision in the code to meet special circumstances affecting the attendance on the day of examination. It is of the utmost consequence that every child should be present when the inspector visits the school, or, by the present defective arrangement of the code, a serious loss will follow. Now, a large proportion of the children may be absent at this critical time from circumstances over which the teacher can have no control. The prevalence of epidemic disease, the inclemency of the weather, and many other local and inevitable causes, may thin the attendance, and reduce the grant to a mere fraction of what it might fairly have been expected to be. I know of a case which occurred last year in a neighbouring parish to mine, in which four-fifths of the scholars were absent from measles on the day of inspection. It is but common fairness to expect that allowance should be made for special circumstances of this nature, in determining the official estimate of a school; but the code gives the inspector no power to take them into account. It seems to forget that the teacher may be cruelly deprived of the fruits of his labour by some unavoidable occurrence, which he could neither have the wisdom to foresee, nor the power to prevent. The necessity for some provisionary clause to meet such emergencies is so apparent, that it is but reasonable to hope that the Privy Council may yet bring their scheme in this respect into closer accordance with common sense. All that is required to be done is, to allow the proportion of children *present* who pass the examination to be taken as the measure of the numbers who *could* pass in average attendance at the school.

The only other remark I desire to make has reference to the invidious distinction which the code seeks to draw between the parents of the children. Other objectionable features of the code have already been extensively canvassed, but I do not think that this absurd regulation has been sufficiently brought under public notice, or it could not fail to excite universal disapprobation. It may be very right in principle for the state only to assist the education of the labouring classes; but if the general description of the school which has been provided for their use does not afford a sufficient guarantee for the proper destination of the grant, it is not unlikely that any specific regulation on the subject will prove worse than impracticable. Nevertheless, an attempt has been made to define what classes of the community are proper subjects for the grant, and what are not. It has been decided that only the children of parents who support themselves by manual labour are to be considered in the beneficial estimate of the school, while the

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families of parents who employ journeyman or apprentices are altogether to be excluded. It would seem to have been forgotten by the authors of this sumptuary regulation, that many small farmers and shopkeepers are considerably worse off than mechanics or agricultural labourers. Besides, as a mere question of public policy, the introduction of such a principle is extremely ill-advised and inexpedient, inasmuch as it appears to give to popular education an eleemosynary character, and to tend indirectly to pauperize the working classes. So far as Scotland is concerned, at least, the distinction which it seeks to establish is utterly repugnant to the traditional opinions and practice of the people. Its practical effect on the character and moral tone of the schoolroom, at the same time, cannot fail to be productive of much evil. Apart altogether from the loss of income which it will entail, no inconsiderable amount of jealousy and suspicion will arise in the course of its operation. It will furnish a most unfortunate occasion for questioning the faithfulness and impartiality of the teacher; and, rightly or wrongly, it will be maintained that most of his attention will be given to those children who alone can bring grants to the school; and much dissatisfaction and ill-will will follow. The sooner, therefore, that this objectionable regulation is rescinded the better, as it will render the code unpopular with the masses, and seriously peril its success as a scheme of public instruction.

A PARISH SCHOOLMASTER.

XII.—OFFICIAL PAPERS, REPORTS, ETC.

I. PRIVY COUNCIL CIRCULARS TO H. M. INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS.

THE following circulars have lately been addressed to Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools:—

Education Department, Privy Council Office,
Downing Street, S.W., Aug. 1, 1863.

SIR,—My Lords find that paragraphs 27, 28, in the printed Instructions of September 1862, have been read by some Inspectors as if not more than forty infants might be taught in the same school with older children.

If you will refer to paragraph 27, you will find that it contains no such limit. You must exercise your own discretion in reporting. Less than forty infants may be too many, more than forty may not be too many, according to circumstances.

Paragraph 28 refers to a different organization, and contains an absolute numerical limit.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

R. R. W. LINGEN.

——, Her Majesty's Inspector.

Examination of Children under Revised Code.

Committee of Council on Education, Council Office,
Downing Street, S.W., Aug. 3, 1863.

SIR,—My Lords desire me to request that, in commencing your duties under the Revised Code, you will peruse again with the utmost care the printed Instructions of 12th January 1863.

If a school is put out of its usual order for examination, one or other of these two conclusions is inevitable,—either it was badly classified for instruction, or it has been packed for examination. Instruction and examination are meant to go *pari passu*.

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This much it is your duty to explain clearly to the managers of every school; but it is for them, not for you, to give effect to this explanation, by presenting their classes under the proper standards. You are to examine the school as they present it; but you are responsible for having first told them how they ought to present it, and for reporting afterwards to the Committee of Council any serious failure on their part to present it as they ought.

My Lords have had one case of a whole school of four classes, containing boys aged from seven to fifteen years, presented under Standard I., without any special notice in the Inspector's report. No grant has been paid upon such an examination, and the Inspector has been reminded of his duty.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

R. R. W. LINGEN.

——, Her Majesty's Inspector.

II. SCOTLAND AND THE REVISED CODE.

THE following letter, addressed to Mr. Nassau Senior, was read at the recent meeting of the Social Science Congress in Edinburgh :—

Education Committee Council Office,
12th October 1863.

SIR,—My attention has been called to the following report in the *Scotsman* newspaper, of the 10th inst., of a part of Mr. Adderley's speech at the meeting of your department on Friday last:—"He (Mr. Adderley) would mention how the code would press upon Scotland with undue weight. It would not recognise the tax upon the heritors for the support of teachers. That would be looked upon as an endowment, not as a voluntary contribution. He thought this was a piece of gross injustice to Scotland, for in every sense this was a contribution from a locality to the support of a school, and it ought therefore to entitle the locality to a subsidiary grant. The code would affect in the same way the burgh schools, which were more in want than parish schools of legislative maintenance." If you will have the goodness to refer to the *Times* of 20th June last, you will see that the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, in reply to a question by Mr. Dunlop, made the following statement:—"The salaries of parish schoolmasters are not intended to be subjected to the Minute with reference to endowments, inasmuch as they more resemble the contributions of charitable persons who are living than endowments, with this advantage, however, to the heritors, that the assessments are made by a responsible public levy, and spread over the parish, instead of trusting to the generosity of one man to make up for the parsimony of another." The Minute will be administered in Scotland according to Mr. Lowe's interpretation of it.—I have the honour to be, your most obedient servant,

R. R. W. LINGEN.

XIII.—THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CONGRESS.

EDUCATIONAL PAPERS.

THE seventh annual meeting of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science was held in Edinburgh, in October, under the presidency of Lord Brougham. In giving an abstract of the proceedings, we shall confine our attention to the Second Department, that of Education, the papers read in which will naturally present most points of interest to the readers of an educational journal.

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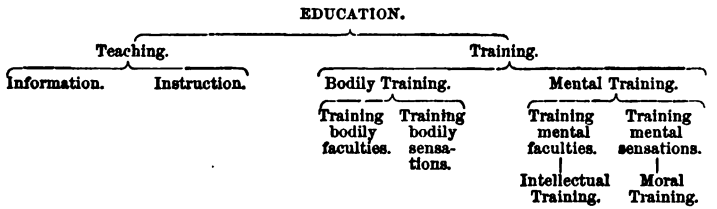
THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

The introductory address in this department was delivered by Mr. Nassau W. Senior, the President. He began by saying that the word Education, in its widest sense, comprehended all the external influences by which the disposition implanted in any animal was subsequently modified. In its narrower sense, it was confined to the influences which one person exercised over another by precept or example. These influences were of two kinds—first, the imparting knowledge, *i.e.*, teaching; secondly, the creation of habits, *i.e.*, training. Teaching was of two kinds—first, the statement of facts, which can only be ascertained by observation; second, statements ascertained only by consciousness. Training was also of two kinds, bodily training and mental training, and each of these might be subdivided into the training of the faculties, and the training of the sensations. A synoptic view of education might, therefore, be thus drawn up:—



From the consideration of the nature of education, Mr. Senior proceeded to that of the persons to be benefited by it, and first considered them with respect to their means of paying for it. Thus considered, he divided them into three groups:—(1.) Children whose parents or friends can afford to pay the whole expense of education, viz., the higher and middle classes of a community; (2.) Those whose parents or friends can afford to pay a portion of that expense, viz., the labouring classes; (3.) Those whose parents or friends cannot pay any part of it, viz., the paupers. The education of the first group was not necessarily incumbent on the State. As far as mere money was concerned, they could take care of themselves. But scarcely any civilized state allowed them to do so, and nearly every such state contained a provision for the teachers of religion. When he spoke of the interference of the State not being necessary in the education of the higher and middle classes, he did not mean to treat it as useless. He meant simply to distinguish those classes from the other two who are unable to pay the whole or any part of a good education, and must, therefore, be dependent on the State for the whole or part of it. The manner and the extent to which the State ought to interfere in the education of those classes who were pecuniarily able to procure it, was a question of great difficulty. But the question, how it ought to deal with the education of paupers, seemed, at first sight, to be perfectly clear. A pauper was one who could not provide for his children the necessaries of life. He believed education to be one of these necessaries, and, therefore, means for providing it must be supplied by the State. Mr. Senior then referred to the state of middle-class education. Though the middle class of the community was by far the most important, yet we knew little, and sought to know little, of the manner in which it was educated. Commissioners were appointed to inquire into the nature and working of the institutions for the education of the higher classes. The education of the middle classes, on the contrary, had been entirely neglected. The first step towards a remedy for this lamentable state of things was to know the extent of the evil. He would, therefore, venture to propose, that the Association petition the Crown to issue

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a Commission to inquire into the present state of middle-class education in the British islands.

Mr. Senior then referred to compulsory half-time education, the condition of the children of the poorer classes employed in mines and collieries, in factories, at such trades as lace-making, fustian-cutting, hosiery, and lucifer-match making. He drew a graphic picture of the neglect of morals and health under which the children—many of them mere infants when sent to work—are subjected in these trades. In conclusion, he directed attention to two important subjects introduced by Mr. Chadwick—the utility of bodily training, and the shortening of the periods of mental labour imposed on children.

II. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

This section of the proceedings comprised only three papers, viz. :—By Rev. G. R. Badenoch—Morning and Evening Classes in the Universities of Scotland. By W. A. Brown—On the Admission of Women to Academical Degrees. By George Lees, LL.D.—The Scottish University System; with Suggestions for its further Improvement.

Mr. Badenoch complained that young men engaged in business or in offices, and desirous of completing a full course in arts, are unable to do so, according to the present arrangement of the classes at the Universities. The object of his paper was to show the advantages arising from having additional classes in the morning and evening. He pointed to the example of the London and Glasgow Universities, where the plan had been adopted, and was working well.

The proposal was condemned by Professors Blackie and Lee, and was not supported by any of the subsequent speakers.

Mr. Brown first combated the idea that mixed classes of men and women were desirable, and then proceeded to consider the question whether it was expedient that women should engage in professional labours. He argued that this was not desirable, from the fact that there was a difference in the mental condition of the sexes. This condition was referable to some law of nature, by which throughout all history the separation of the sexes had been determined. This difference was to a large extent educational, and therefore capable of assimilation. Such an assimilation, however, would materially alter the constitution of society, and would in fact do violence to nature. No amount of education could ever make men women, or women men. He then considered the professions directly conditioned by academical degrees, viz., the professions of education and of medicine. In regard to the claims advanced as to these professions, he said that his objections were not to any appreciable extent based on the allegation of the incapacity of woman in comparison with man, but simply because such pursuits would rob woman of her feminine character, and of the time she is bound to devote to her feminine duties; and, lastly, that the result aimed at, if secured, would operate against the inequality designed by nature.

Dr. George Lees, after describing the Scottish University system, advocated the combination of the tutorial with the professorial system in conducting classes, but that not in separate individuals, but as separate functions of one individual. Wherever the professorial power was deficient, it could be supplemented either by founding additional and independent professorships, as in the German universities, or by reviving the original system of teaching by Graduates, under such regulations as may be desirable in the existing order of things. Though the professorial system would at first sight appear to be the best that could be adopted, both with reference to professors and students, yet, looking to its practical working over a period of years, to the

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occurrence now and then of bad appointments, and to other causes of inefficiency, we could not but see that some maintaining power was wanting which should secure to it high intellectual culture. This maintaining power would be found in recognising the services of graduates as part of our University system. This extramural teaching would awaken such an amount of talent and zeal for high attainments in all departments of study, as could not fail to tell with the greatest advantage both in the Universities, and in all the higher schools of the country.

Professor Blackie was in favour of intramural competition as they had in Germany. They ought to introduce from Germany the principle of appointing professors to a faculty, and not to a subject only.

Mr. Campbell Swinton thought that if such a system of open teaching were adopted in our Universities it would have the effect of making the Universities become not teaching bodies, but mere examining bodies.

Professor Struthers, Aberdeen, held that graduates had a legal right to teach in the University, and remarked that no professor had any occasion to be alarmed at the appearance of a poor extra-academical lecturer. He denied that the effect of the proposal would be to make the University system an examining instead of a teaching system.

III. WORKING MEN'S COLLEGES.

The papers read in connexion with this subject were the following, :—By George Lees, LL.D—On Industrial Education, with reference to Mechanics' Institutions. By Henry Solly—On Working Men's Industrial College and its relation to Working Men's Clubs. By Rev. A. Sweatman—On Youths' Institutes.

Dr. Lees referred to the importance of the education of the industrial classes as bearing on the material interests of the country. With regard to the subjects which should form the curriculum of study in Mechanics' Institutes, he thought the arrangements of the Edinburgh School of Arts were well worthy of being regarded as a model. He then sketched the history of that Institution, and suggested the formation of similar schools in other towns.

Mr. Solly was of opinion that these colleges should aim at more than affording recreation, to compete with the public-house. The movement must be one for improving the character and position of the working classes, for permanently raising them, socially, mentally, and morally. He suggested the establishment of a Central Working Men's University, which should be the culminating point of all the colleges in the country, and should stimulate and reward the best exertions and results of the various local affiliated institutions, receiving from them students, who should work half-time at their trade, and the other half at the University.

The objects of the Youths' Institutes, described by Mr. Sweatman, a number of which had been established in London, were, evening recreation and instruction, and the social, moral, and religious improvement of youths employed in offices, warehouses, and shops.

IV. NATIONAL EDUCATION.

On this section of the Educational subjects papers were read by Professor Milligan—On the Parish Schools of Scotland. By Rev. Dr. Bell, M.D.—On some points of the Revised Code of the Committee of Council on Education of May 1862. By Rev. A. Fraser—On the Present State of Elementary Education in Scotland ; with Suggestions as to a Commission of Inquiry. By Rev. D. Masson, M.A., M.D.—On Highland Schools considered with a Special View to the Best Means of Introducing a more General Knowledge of English among the Celtic Population. By Rev. R. Blyth—On

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Scottish Sabbath Schools, and their Educational and Moral Bearing. By James Valentine—On the Means of Elementary Education in the City of Aberdeen; with Suggestions for a Government Inquiry into the same subject in the Towns of Scotland.

Professor Milligan said that the old parish schools seemed to have possessed certain characteristics which contributed powerfully to their success, but which could not be repeated now. 1*st*, In their teaching power they once absorbed a greater proportion of the talent of the country than they do now. Not that they possessed more talent amongst their teachers, but, relatively to the amount of talent in the country, that advantage did belong to them. 2*d*. The parish schools once stood to the general education of the country in a different relation from that in which they stand now; that is to say, there were few other educators in the field. 3*d*. The parish schools were formerly more closely connected with the National Church than they are now. He next considered those characteristics of the old parish schools which greatly contributed to their efficiency, and which might be preserved in exactly the same or analogous forms. (1.) The end which was contemplated in education was religion. Education to be worthy of the name must be religious. (2.) A high standard of teaching was considered indispensable. Not that every child was to be taught higher branches, but no teacher was satisfied if he could not point to these branches in his school. (3.) The teacher had entire freedom. He was left to conduct his school according to his own method. (4.) The income the teacher enjoyed was secure. This security drew many an able man into the field. And, putting all these circumstances together, the fifth characteristic was, in its teacher it made the man. This was more the result of the whole spirit of the arrangements than an avowed principle. "Does the Revised Code preserve the characteristics before alluded to? It does the very opposite. The value of the services rendered to education by the Privy Council must be acknowledged. But let all the schools of Scotland be embraced by the Privy Council schemes, and the glory of Scottish school-life will have disappeared. The Revised Code runs counter to the principles of our old parochial system in each particular mentioned. Surely it is not yet too late to remedy the evil. Why do not the different churches of the land, which speak so much about education, try to come to a common understanding in regard to it? It is full time that the country should awake from its indifference to the subject, and that it should interpose its hand to prevent the indefinite extension of a system which possesses little in common with all of the past that has been productive of the greatest good."

Dr. Bell called attention to the point that the income from Government was to be uncertain, while the expenditure on account of the regulations was certain. A certain number of pupil-teachers on a fixed payment must be kept up. But his opinion was that managers of schools ought to be allowed freedom of action, and for his part he would do away with pupil-teachers altogether. They were a source of the greatest trouble and anxiety. The proposal he would make in relation to the Revised Code was,—*First*, That the principal teacher in every school for the education of the masses of our people should be certificated, and should have a certain allowance from Government as a recognition of the certificate, so long as they remained approved of by Government managers. *Second*, That everything connected with the aid the teachers might need to bring about the required results, in regard to the education of scholars, be left to the managers.

Mr. Fraser urged the necessity of demanding a national system of education. He argued in favour of the appointment of a Royal Commission of inquiry, and mentioned the following as some of the subjects to be investigated by them:—1. The present condition of our parish schools. 2. The

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working of the burgh and grammar schools. 3. The best means of adjusting the relation between the Normal Training Colleges and the University, so as to secure for the teacher a liberal education; and whether there might not be one college instead of two in Edinburgh and in Glasgow, another in Aberdeen, and a fourth in Inverness. 4. Whether the educational interests of the country would not be promoted by making sub-inspectorships obtainable only through successful competition in literature, physical science, and mental philosophy. And 5. What means should be adopted to reach those masses whose children cannot be reached by any of the agencies now working?

The discussion which followed the reading of these papers was taken part in chiefly by the clergy of different denominations, and by the Lord Advocate and Mr. Adderley as representing the House of Commons. The Rev. T. Smith, Edinburgh, thought that the blame of the introduction of the Revised Code into Scotland was due entirely to those who had held such an illiberal attachment to the parish schools, as to maintain that they should be exclusively confined in their management to one Christian denomination. The Rev. Mr. Renton, Kelso, said that Professor Milligan's paper appeared to him to be anything but a correct historical description. It was rather a greatly exaggerated, if not purely imaginative, picture of the parish schools. The Hon. C. B. Adderley, M.P., said he had watched the discussions and proceedings in Parliament on Scotch Education Bills from year to year, and the succession of these discussions year after year had filled him with despair for the passing of any one of them. To this day the Scotch, owing to their differences among themselves, had excluded themselves from a great portion of the National Grant. They were always going to have a national scheme, but they had never done so yet. The Lord Advocate said, that the question now was, how are we to do what remains to be done? Scotland has enormous advantage in two matters: First, we have the parochial school system already, which is the only system of the kind existing in the kingdom. It is a system based upon wise and liberal and enlightened views, and it is a system that has produced the greatest possible good to the country. The second advantage is, that we have none of those serious doctrinal differences that stand in the way in England. Our differences are differences of management. And therefore the common-sense view would be this, now that we have abolished the test for schools,—that any expenditure of public money on education should be devoted to a sufficient, liberal, and large extension of the parochial school system. The last attempt he made to introduce our Educational Bill was not wrecked from the House of Lords or the House of Commons, but it was from the educationists in Scotland itself. If the Free Church, along with the United Presbyterians, and the general body of the community, had freely come forward and given a general support to the measure that was introduced last year, he believed they should have succeeded, and have overcome all the difficulties raised.

V. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

The following papers were read on this subject:—By J. R. Findlay—On the United Industrial School of Edinburgh. By Mrs. Gordon (née Brewster)—On the Training of the Primary Schoolmistress. By Mrs. E. Hamilton—On the Early Industrial Training of Girls of the Humbler Classes. By Sheriff Watson—On the Monitorial System of Elementary Instruction as carried on in the Schools of the Aberdeen Industrial School Association, and in Chalmers' Infant School at Turiff. By Mrs. Heaton—On Needlework in Schools.

Sheriff Watson's paper gave a brief statement of the mode of management and instruction pursued in the schools above mentioned, showing that the system differed considerably from any other at present in use. It is one of

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the features of the system to endeavour to reduce school time to three hours a day. There is no oral spelling, nor lessons got by heart at home; no place taking and no whipping. Mr. Findlay stated that the plan on which the industrial school was instituted in 1847, and on which it had since been most successfully conducted, was that of "combined instruction in things secular, separate in things religious." The school was attended by Protestant and Roman Catholic children, boys and girls, who received all the instruction of the school in common classes, took their meals and enjoyed their recreations together, and only separated one hour daily, when the Protestant children received instruction from a Protestant teacher, and the Catholic from a Catholic one. The common classes were conducted without the slightest reference to the difference of creed, and no part of the general funds was devoted to religious instruction. The directors claimed to have thus practically solved the greatest difficulty in "the educational question"—the "religious difficulty."

Mrs. Gordon held that, as a rule, nothing was taught to girls likely to become servants, of practical domestic economy at the only time of their lives when they could be taught. It was of the highest importance that female teachers ought to be taught how to teach domestic economy. A systematic education of female teachers and pupils for the common work of common life would do much to check the idleness, the ignorance, and the uselessness of our countrywomen. The writer also advocated the establishment of organized institutions for the practical education of the young women of Great Britain, these establishments to be afterwards supplemented by Government money.

VI. MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION.

The papers read under this head were:—By Rev. J. P. Norris—On Middle-class Education. By Dr. Bryce—On Scottish Grammar Schools. By J. Donaldson—On the Organization of the High School, Edinburgh, and cognate Institutions. By Walter Scott Dalgleish, M.A.—On University Certificate Examinations; or, Local Examinations for Scotland. By F. W. Bedford, D.C.L.—On the Hospital System of Scotland. By Walter Scott Dalgleish, M.A.—On Open Competition in Theory and in Practice. By E. Barbier—On International Education.

Mr. Norris stated that the position of the middle-class schools had been very unsatisfactory during the last thirty years, contrasting unfavourably with the richer and poorer schools. Two efforts had been made of late to remedy this evil. The first was the establishment of the College of Preceptors in 1846. The second was the institution of the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations in 1858. The success attending the operation of the local examination scheme in the University of Cambridge, induced the Senate to authorize the Syndicate "to entertain applications for the appointment of one or more persons to examine the scholars of any school making application for examination, and to make a report of the result of the examination to the Syndicate, all the expenses to be borne by the school." Mr. Norris was of opinion that the success of the scheme depended on four principal conditions:—1. The qualifications of the examiner; 2. The time bestowed on each school should be sufficient to satisfy the teacher that he has been enabled to form a just estimate of the school; 3. The fees should be moderate, not exceeding £1 admission fee, and £3 per diem, sufficient for an examiner to defray travelling and printing expenses; and 4. Publicity, it being essential that the reports should be published each year.

After the reading of Mr. Norris' paper, Mr. Heywood, M.P., moved a resolution, to request the committee of the section to consider the propriety of submitting to the Council of the National Association to petition the

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Crown to inquire into the present state of middle-class education, and to consider measures for the provision of sound knowledge for this class. Mr. E. Noel seconded the motion, which was put to the meeting, and carried.

Dr. Bryce advocated the establishment of an entrance examination in the Universities, which, he believed, would do more good to raise the standard of education in a short time, than by years of copying and adapting the names in use at Oxford and Cambridge without any approach to the reality. The system of teaching in middle-class schools he held to be imperfect, in that too exclusive attention was paid to classical education. Another defect of the system was the limited teaching staff. The third defect was the small fees paid to the teachers. He further referred to the management of schools which was generally invested in the Town-Councils in Scotland. He questioned the qualifications of these managers for their work, and suggested that Education Boards should be formed in every town, constituted by a deputation from the Town-Council and Educational Commissioners, appointed at intervals of one or two years by the different wards, in the same way as they appointed the members of the Paving Board, their qualifications being literary taste, and educational enthusiasm. He urged, in conclusion, the importance of the Universities enforcing an entrance class; and secondly, a Government inquiry into the state of middle-class education in Scotland, in the latter of which suggestions he had been anticipated by Mr Senior.

Mr. Donaldson adverted to several of the points taken up by Dr. Bryce. The concluding part of his paper was a description of the methods of teaching adopted in the High School of Edinburgh. One particular defect to which he called attention, was the length of school hours. The pupils in the High School were compelled to work nine or ten hours a day; too much attention being paid to cram, and too little to the physical development of the boys.

Mr. Scott Dalgleish sketched the progress of the movement for Local Examinations in Scotland, which had been commenced upwards of three years ago in the General Council of the University of Edinburgh. It had been approved also by the University of Glasgow, and had received a large measure of support from teachers and influential mercantile men. He then pointed out the need there was for having some test to apply to the education of young men intended for business pursuits on their leaving school. It was necessary, that their parents might be satisfied—it was necessary, that their employers might be satisfied. It was highly desirable as a stimulus to pupils —it was no less so as a stimulus to teachers. In this way it would operate powerfully, as it would bring into competition the pupils of schools in different parts of the country. It would thus afford parents, as well as school-directors, a safe means of ascertaining the true condition of the schools in which they were interested. Operating thus, the scheme could not fail ere long to elevate the whole school education of the country, and would tend to place the Universities themselves on a higher level. Mr. Dalgleish then made some practical suggestions as to the mode of organizing the scheme, and concluded by saying that the University of Oxford was understood to be willing to fix centres of examination in Edinburgh and Glasgow. Those, therefore, who were determined to have the benefit of such a system of examinations had this to fall back upon, in the event of failure at home.

Professor Kelland explained that the University of Edinburgh had entertained a scheme of middle-class examinations. The University Commissioners did not take up the proposal, first, because it was necessary that the scheme of University degrees should be in perfect operation before any new scheme could be taken in hand, and second, because their funds were being adjusted, and it was undesirable to entertain a scheme which would involve more

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expenditure of money before that adjustment. Dr. Lyon Playfair made an explanation in supplement of what had been said by Professor Kelland as to the proceedings of the University to obtain middle-class examinations. He expressed his great pleasure that attention had now been called publicly to the matter. He urged that it was necessary to take immediate action, or that other bodies would come across the border to conduct these examinations. The Universities had received sufficient warning, and, on the part of the University of Edinburgh, he had to say that they were perfectly willing to entertain the subject and advance it as far as possible.

Dr. Bedford reviewed the existing foundations in Scotland, by which numerous advantages were conferred on many destitute and deserving families. It was, however, alleged that hospital-trained children were far more wanting in ordinary intelligence, were less smart and docile, and exhibited less affection for home than other children who had far inferior domestic and educational advantages. He had endeavoured to discover whether he could find any grounds for these allegations. These results had by some been attributed to the monastic character of hospital education; but public and private boarding schools are also monastic in their constitution, and the same objections were not lodged against them. It might, therefore, be proper to ask in what respect hospitals usually differed from boarding schools. 1. The education was gratuitous. 2. The usual age of admission was earlier and the period of residence longer. 3. The opinions on which the pupils acted for a long time after admission, being to a great extent traditionary, there was less than the average amount of thinking. 4. The domestic comforts were usually greater than the pupils are accustomed to at home. Great improvements in the management of these institutions had been made within the last thirty or forty years. Other improvements must yet be made before the leading objections to the hospital system could be met. Very young children should not be admitted unless they were orphans. The resident pupils should have the opportunity of mixing with a still larger number of non-resident pupils. Lastly, some mode of examination, similar to the middle-class examinations, should be adopted, with the view of stimulating to advanced scholarship.

Mr. F. Barbier only wished to promote discussion on the advantages to be derived from his scheme. It was proposed to establish four colleges, one each in England, France, Germany, and Italy, in all of which a uniform programme was to be adopted. Each college would receive a certain number of children, one fourth belonging to each country, who would be instructed on the mutual system.

VII. FOREIGN EDUCATION.

In addition to the paper of Mr. Barbier, referred to above, two important and elaborate papers were read on the state of foreign education: one by Cornelius Walford—An Historical and Statistical Outline of the Past and Present Position of Education in the United States of America. The other by Rev. R. Burgess, B.D.—On the Present State of Primary Instruction in France, including the Non-Catholic Communities.

VIII. MISCELLANEOUS.

An additional sitting of the Department was devoted to papers on subjects of a miscellaneous character, which could not be well included in the above classes. They were by C. M. Ingleby, LL.D.—On the Study of Arithmetic, as a means of Cultivating the Reason, Discursive and Intuitive. By James Yates, M.A., F.R.S.—Description of an Apparatus to be used in English

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Schools for Teaching the Metric System of Weights and Measures. By James Valentine—On Ancient Music or Song Schools of Scotland, with a Plea for the Teaching of Music in Schools. By Phœbe Blyth—On Reading, Writing, and Speaking as Aids in the Training of the Mind. By James Aspinall—On the Designing of Wall Papers for Educational Purposes. By W. Wallace Fyfe—On Agricultural Instruction on the Lower Platform. By Mrs. Heaton —On the Teacher's Moral Influence. By Rev. William Boyd—On Colportage in Scotland. By Alexander Melville Bell—On Necessary Additions to the English Alphabet.

XIV. RETROSPECT OF THE QUARTER.

I. UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

OXFORD.—Lord Derby, the Chancellor of the University, has re-appointed the Rev. John Prideaux Lightfoot, D.D., Rector of Exeter, Vice-Chancellor for the ensuing year. The Vice-Chancellor has appointed as his deputies or Pro-Vice-Chancellors—Rev. Dr. Plumptre, Master of University College; Rev. Dr. Cotton, Provost of Worcester College; Rev. Dr. Scott, Master of Baliol College; and Rev. Dr. Williams, Principal of Jesus College.

The annual election of Hebdomadal Councillors took place on October 21. The result was as follows:—

Heads of Houses.—Francis Jeune, D.C.L., Master of Pembroke College; Frederick Bulley, D.D., President of Magdalen College; Henry George Liddell, D.D., Dean of Christ Church.

Professors.—Robert Scott, D.D., Ireland Professor of Divinity; William Jacobson, D.D., Regius Professor of Divinity; Bartholomew Price, M.A., Professor of Natural Philosophy.

Members of Convocation.—Henry Longueville Mansel, B.D., St. John's College; Edward Halifax Hansell, B.D., Magdalen College; John Matthias Wilson, B.D., Fellow of Corpus Christi College.

The Rev. J. R. T. Eaton, M.A. (Merton), has been appointed Public Examiner in Literis Humanioribus, and Mr. D. B. Monro, M.A. (Oriel), Public Examiner, *pro hac vice*, in Literis Humanioribus, in the place of Mr. Lewis Campbell, M.A. (Queen's).

The Vice-Chancellor and Proctors have nominated the following gentlemen to be members of the Delegacy, "De Examinatione Candidatorum qui non sunt de corpore Universitatis:"—Mr. Henry J. S. Smith, M.A. (Baliol); the Rev. J. W. Burgon, M.A. (Oriel); the Rev. J. E. T. Rogers, M.A. (Magdalen Hall); and the Rev. W. Ince, M.A. (Exeter). Congregation has re-elected its three delegates:—George Rawlinson, M.A., Exeter College; William B. T. Jones, M.A., University College; John Phillips, M.A., Magdalen College.

In a congregation holden on Dec. 1, two new Statutes were promulgated. One is on the subject of the final examination. It is proposed to allow those who obtain a first, second, or third class in any final school to take their degrees without passing through a second school, provided that they have gained some honour in the examination before moderators, or satisfied the moderators in at least three books. The other to allow the Vice-Chancellor to pay annually to the parishes where the University has property certain sums for educational and charitable purposes.

At the meeting of the Hebdomadal Council, on Dec. 1, the proposal for increasing the stipend of the Greek Professor from £40 to £400, was

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brought forward once more by Dr. Stanley, and, the votes being equal, was, according to the custom of the Council, dropped. Dr. Stanley was supported, amongst others, by the Vice-Chancellor, the Dean of Christ Church, the Master of Balliol, the Regius Professor of Divinity, the Professor of Moral Philosophy, and the Junior Proctor. Of the opposition, the chief names are those of Dr. Pusey, Professor Mansel, and Dr. Jeune. The measure was really lost by the desertion of Dr. Jeune, who on former occasions counted among its supporters.

There will be an election to one "Winchester" and one Open Fellowship in the New College on Thursday, January 21, 1864. Candidates are desired to forward their names, together with testimonials, to the Warden, on or before Saturday, January 9, 1864.

There will be an election to two Fellowships in Brasenose College—one classical, the other mathematical—on Friday, February 5, 1864.

Three open classical scholarships, each of the annual value of £80, will be filled up at Lincoln College, on Friday, January 22, the candidates to call on the Rector on Monday, January 18, between nine and ten in the morning. Some open exhibitions, of the annual value of £30, may be awarded at the same time.

Two scholarships in St. John's College will be open for competition early in Lent Term, 1864: the one, of the yearly value of about £90, for which candidates must be twenty years of age, tenable for five years; the other of the yearly value of about £96, tenable for four years.

CAMBRIDGE.—At a congregation held on October 26, Earl Powis was elected High-Steward of the University, in the room of Lord Lyndhurst.

At a congregation held on October 29, the grace for establishing the Professorship of Political Economy, with a salary of £200 a-year, to be increased to £300, was opposed, but carried, in a very full house: placets, 98; non-placets, 40—majority, 58.

At a congregation held on November 5, Dr. Cookson, Master of St. Peter's College, was elected Vice-Chancellor for the year ensuing.

At a congregation held on the 12th November, it was agreed to adopt the Report of the Council of the Senate recommending the establishment of classes for selected candidates for the Indian Civil Service, in the vernacular languages of India. The report recommends, that with this view the Vice-Chancellor shall be empowered to expend annually a sum not exceeding £150 from the University chest in engaging teachers of such of the Oriental languages, and for such periods, as he may think fit; and also to fix from time to time the fees which the students should pay for such instruction. This arrangement is to come into operation at the commencement of Lent Term 1864, and to continue in force for three years.

The Board of Classical Studies have signified that the subjects for the ordinary B.A. examination in the Easter Term of 1865, and two following terms, are:—Homer's *Odyssey*, books XX., XXX., and XXII.; *Livy*, book V.

The Le Bas Prize.—The examiners have given notice that the subject for the present years is:—"The state and prospects of education among the upper classes of natives in India, and the results to be expected from their more general employment in the higher departments of Government." Candidates must be graduates of the University, who are not of more than three years' standing from their first degrees when the essays are sent in. The essays must be sent in to the Vice-Chancellor before the end of the Easter Term 1864, each bearing some motto, and accompanied by a sealed paper bearing the same motto, and enclosing the name of the candidate, and that of his college. The successful candidate is required to publish the essay at his own expense.

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Fellowships at Cambridge.—Re *Trinity College, Cambridge,* was argued again on the 24th November, in the Court of Chancery, before the Lord Chancellor. This was an appeal from the decision of the Master and senior Fellows of Trinity College, Cambridge, to the Lord Chancellor, as representing the Crown in its capacity of visitor of the college. The case, as stated by Sir Hugh Cairns, was briefly as follows: A. and B. were two Fellows of Trinity in Holy Orders. A. was the senior. Under the new statutes given to the college by the Commissioners, it was optional to the then Fellows to remain under the old statutes, or to elect to be subject to the new statutes. A. elected to be subject to the new statutes; B. remained under the old. It is the rule to offer college livings to the Fellows in the order of their seniority. A college living fell vacant, and was offered to B. in preference to A., the Master and senior Fellows holding that A. had, by electing to be subject to the new statutes, forfeited his seniority, and his position must be determined as though he had been elected after the acceptance of the new statutes. It appeared, however, from the statement of the Attorney-General, who represented the Master and the senior Fellows, that A. had not only elected to be subject to the new statutes, but had also married, and it was only by the new statutes that a married man was allowed to retain his Fellowship. The Lord Chancellor, however, declined to decide how far A.'s position was affected by the fact of his marriage, as that question was not before him, and made a declaration to the effect that the fact of A. electing to be subject to the new statutes did not affect his seniority.

Degree Examinations.—The syndicate appointed, Dec. 11, 1862, to consider and report upon the whole scheme of examinations which the candidates for the ordinary degree of B.A. are required to pass, and the manner in which the improvement of theological education in the University can best be attained, have reported to the Senate—That, having considered the subject referred to them, they are of opinion that the purposes for which the syndicate was appointed may best be attained by so arranging the examinations as to enable the candidates for the ordinary B.A. degree to complete, in general, their course of instruction in classics, mathematics, and the rudiments of divinity, by the end of the seventh term, and thus to enable these students to apply themselves during the remainder of their stay in the University to the study of theology, or of some branches of moral or natural science, by passing examinations in which subjects they should finally qualify themselves for the degree of B.A. They therefore recommend that, instead of the three examinations at present required to be passed by candidates for the ordinary degree, viz., the previous examination, the examination for the professorial certificate, and the B.A. examination, there be substituted the following, viz.:—

A previous examination, to be held towards the end of the Michaelmas term, in each year, open to all students who have entered on their third term at least, having previously kept two terms.

A general examination, to be held towards the end of the Michaelmas term, in each year, open to all students who have entered on the sixth term at least, having previously kept five terms and passed the previous examination.

A special examination in some specified departments of theology, to be held in the Michaelmas term of each year, open to all students who have entered on their ninth term at least, having previously kept eight terms, and passed the previous and general examinations. Or, a special examination in some branch or branches of moral and natural sciences, to be held in the Easter term of each year.

They further recommend that the several examinations be conducted according to the following regulations, amongst others of a minor character:—

1. *Previous Examination.*—That the subjects of the examination shall be one of the four Gospels in the original Greek, Paley's Evidences of Christi-

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anity, one of the Greek and one of the Latin classics, the Elements of Euclid, Books i. ii. iii. and vi., Props. 1-6, and arithmetic.

2. *General Examination for Ordinary Degrees.*—That the subjects of this examination shall be the Acts of the Apostles in the original Greek; one of the Greek and one of the Latin classics; the following parts of Algebra, viz., definitions and explanations of algebraical signs and terms, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of simple algebraical quantities and simple algebraical fractions; the elementary rules of ratio and proportion; easy equations of a degree not higher than the second, involving not more than two unknown quantities, and questions producing such equations; and also the proofs of the rules of arithmetical and geometrical progression, with simple examples; and elementary mechanics treated so as not necessarily to require a knowledge of trigonometry, viz., the composition and resolution of forces acting in one plane at a point, the mechanical powers, and the properties of the centre of gravity.

That an additional paper be given containing two sections—first, an easy passage for translation into Latin prose; and secondly, a subject or subjects for English prose composition, for which paper students shall not be required to present themselves, but the result of which shall be taken into account in assigning their places in the class list.

3. *Special Examination in Theological Studies for Ordinary Degrees.*—That there shall be an examination in the following departments of theological study, viz.: Selected books of the Old Testament; selected books of the New Testament in the original Greek; selected portions of the Prayer-book and Articles; some standard treatise on theology or moral philosophy; English composition and homiletics; some Latin ecclesiastical writer; the ecclesiastical history of some specified periods.

4. *Special Examination in Moral Sciences for Ordinary Degrees.*—That there shall be an examination in the following branches of moral science, viz., moral philosophy, logic, history, and political economy, in each of which branches two papers at least shall be set.

That students presenting themselves for this examination shall be required to select one of these branches of study, and to show a competent knowledge of the branch thus selected, and that no student be examined in more than one branch.

5. *Special Examination in Natural Science for Ordinary Degrees.*—That there shall be an examination in the following branches of natural science, viz., (1.) chemistry, (2.) geology, (3.) botany, (4.) zoology, (5.) comparative anatomy and physiology.

6. That the previous examination according to the above regulations shall be first held in December 1864, and that the general examination for ordinary degrees shall be first held in November 1865, and the special examinations for ordinary degrees in 1866.

St. Andrews.—The half-yearly meeting of the General Council was held on the 26th November, Principal Forbes in the chair. Dr. Lees moved the adoption of the following motion:—"That this Council, considering the importance of encouraging the privilege of graduates to teach at the University seats those subjects of study contained in the curriculum of Arts, do agree to represent to the University Court the propriety of giving full effect to such privileges, by recognising, under suitable restrictions, such teaching as part of the curriculum required for graduation." Mr. D. Meldrum, younger of Kincaple, seconded the motion. Professor Veitch proposed an amendment to the effect that "there was not sufficient evidence of the alleged privilege of graduates to teach in this University to the extent to qualify for examination for the degree of Master of Arts, and that it was inexpedient in the

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present circumstances to introduce the teaching by graduates with such a view into this University." The Rev. Mr. Campbell, Balmerino, preferred a motion to the effect—"That without pronouncing any opinion on the general question of the advantages or disadvantages of teaching by graduates in the larger Universities, the Council think that the adoption of such a method in this University was inexpedient, owing to the comparatively small number of students." After some discussion, the following modified amendment by Professor Veitch—"That it is inexpedient in present circumstances to introduce teaching by graduates into the University of St. Andrews," was carried by a large majority.

GLASGOW.—The ninth general meeting of the General Council was held on the 28th of October, Professor Andrew Buchanan in the chair. Mr. Bannatyne was unanimously re-elected Assessor. Mr. James Mitchell brought before the meeting the report of the committee on graduation in Arts, and moved its adoption. The Rev. Mr. Pearson seconded the motion, and the report was adopted. Mr. Buchanan, M.P., then brought under the consideration of the Council the "Notes" by the University Court on the proposed lengthening of the winter session. In these notes the Court carefully considered the arguments in favour of the change urged in the memorials presented by the Town-Council and merchants of Glasgow. The Court recognised the advantages to be derived from the lengthening of the winter session. The Court also called attention to another, and they believed a more attainable, mode of meeting the wishes of the memorialists. This was the system of tutorial classes. On the motion of Dr. Buchanan, it was agreed to remit the Notes to the committee.

EDINBURGH.—The half-yearly meeting of the General Council of this University was held on the 30th October, Principal Sir David Brewster in the chair. Mr. A. Campbell Swinton proposed Mr. John Muir, D.C.L. Oxon., and LL.D. Edinburgh, as a suitable person to fill the office of the Council's Assessor in the University Court. Dr. Alexander Wood seconded the nomination, and the motion was carried by acclamation.

The secretary read the following deliverances of the University Court:—1. With reference to resuming "the annual publication in the Edinburgh newspapers of the list of honours awarded in the several faculties and classes;" understanding that the Senatus are of the same opinion, but have felt themselves constrained for the present to abandon the former practice, on account of the condition of the funds of the University, the Court recommend the Senatus to reconsider the matter on the earliest possible occasion, with the view of returning to the former practice as far as may be found practicable.

2. The Court consider that the request contained in the representation of the General Council, "that members of the General Council, whose annual payments are not in arrear, should have a preference over those not connected with the University in the arrangements at any meeting at which the degree of LL.D. is conferred by the Senatus," is a reasonable request; and the Court further resolved to direct the Senatus accordingly.

The Rev. K. M. Phin of Galashiels read the report of the committee on the functions, privileges, and funds of the General Council. With reference to the functions and privileges of the Council, the committee quoted all the passages from the Universities' Act, and from the ordinances of the Commissioners, relating thereto; from which they concluded that the General Council, with the view of duly exercising its functions and privileges, is entitled—1. To nominate a committee at each meeting to arrange, prepare, and announce the business for the following meeting, and to settle the order

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of procedure at said meeting; the appointment of the chairman being the only matter regulated by the Act or by the Ordinances.

II. To entertain no motion of which due notice has not been given, though it is at the same time competent for any member, with the sanction of the meeting, to bring forward any motion without such notice.

III. To appoint its own registrar and secretary.

With regard to funds, they had ascertained that the sum they had contributed to the general fund of the University was £1550, 2s. 9d. The expenditure on their account had been £353, 15s. 9d., leaving a balance in favour of the University general fund, from establishment of Council in 1859, of £1196, 7s. The committee had ascertained that there are upwards of 2300 names on the roll, from which, however, a subtraction must be made for deaths of which the register had not received information. The number of members who have compounded for their annual payments is about 1000. The report was unanimously approved of, and a business committee appointed.

Rev. D. Thorburn of Leith, moved the adoption of the following motion: —"1. That the General Council represent to the University Court the propriety and importance of its taking into consideration the measures to be adopted towards procuring the ample endowment of the University of Edinburgh and of the other Universities of Scotland, and their full equipment with scholarships, tutorships, and fellowships, and all such other appliances and means as may be requisite towards their being placed on an equal footing with such institutions as Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin, and towards securing that degrees conferred by them in arts, in laws, in medicine, and theology, shall, equally with degrees conferred by any other academical institutions, be the passport to all offices of a public kind, civil or ecclesiastical, at home or abroad, in the United Kingdom or in the colonies. 2. That a committee be appointed to communicate with the University Court and with the Councils of the other Universities of Scotland on the subject of the preceding resolution." Some discussion took place on a question raised by Professor Muirhead, as to whether it was competent to appoint a committee in terms of the motion, in addition to the committee appointed to prepare the business for next meeting, in the course of which Mr. W. S. Dalgleish referred to the report adopted by the meeting at a previous stage of the proceedings, and to the ordinance of the Commissioners, as showing that it was competent to them to "appoint a committee or committees to prepare, arrange, and announce the business." The motion was then adopted, and a large committee appointed in accordance therewith.

The Rev. W. L. Irvine, of Arbroath, moved the adoption of the following resolutions:—"1. That the Council represent to the University Court the undue length of the present six or seven months' vacation, more particularly in certain classes in the faculty of arts, and the desirableness of having a more extended session, with such breaks at Christmas and in spring as may be thought convenient for all parties. 2. That, with a view to raise the standard of teaching in certain classes in the faculty of arts, the Council represent to the University Court the desirableness of entrance examinations in all the classes in that faculty, in the classical and mathematical departments especially." Mr. Scott Dalgleish seconded the motion, which, after a discussion in which Professors Lee, Blackie, and others took part, was unanimously adopted, and a committee was appointed accordingly.

On the motion of Mr. Scott Dalgleish, a committee was appointed to consider the subject of Local Examinations for Scotland.

The following motion, by Rev. Walter Wood, was unanimously adopted: —"That a representation be made to the University Court, that it is expedient that a detailed abstract of the accounts of the University, with *vidimus* of the funds, be submitted annually to the General Council."

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ABERDEEN.—The half-yearly general meeting of the General Council was held on October 14th—Principal Campbell in the chair. The following deliverances of the University Court, upon representations from the Council, were read to the meeting :—"1. With reference to changing the site of the library to New Aberdeen, the Court do not concur in the propriety and expediency of the course recommended in the representation. 2. As to competition tests and preliminary examinations, the Court was of opinion that the matter might be left to the consideration of the Senatus. 3. In regard to the vote of thanks to Lord Seafield, the Court was of opinion that it is not within the proper province of this Court to give effect to the recommendation."

Rev. Mr. Anderson, Marnoch, then brought forward his motion, remitting to the business committee to consider as to publishing a University calendar. Professor Fuller, convener of Senatus committee, stated that, having communicated with various Universities publishing calendars, they found it would at present be impossible for the Senatus to be at the expense of publishing a calendar. On a division, 24 voted for Mr. Anderson's motion, and 25 against it.

Rev. Mr. Davidson, Inverury, submitted a motion, recommending the University Court to take into consideration the whole regulations under which the University is at present conducted, with a view to ascertain the effect which these regulations have, or are likely to have, on the efficiency of teaching in the classes, and upon the cost of a University education in Aberdeen; and having special regard to the question, whether the present scale of fees and the bursary arrangements are likely to diminish the number of deserving students of small means now attending the University. The Rev. Dr M'Combie moved that the representation be not transmitted. On a division, Mr. Davidson's motion was carried by 33 to 28.

Mr. J. S. Milne, advocate, then moved—"That the Council renew the representations made by it to the University Court, of 9th April 1861, for an alteration in the ordinances regulating the election of the Rector of the University." The motion was carried by a large majority.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON—DONATION.—A donation of £3000 has just been made to the funds of University College, London, by the Parsee firm of Cama and Co., of Bombay and London, in testimony of their sense of the advantages which many natives of India have derived from the education, general and professional, they have been enabled to receive at that College, "without interference with the religious creed inherited by them from their ancestors." The same firm, a short time ago, presented £1000 to the Hospital of the College.

QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, IRELAND.—The annual meeting for conferring degrees, etc., took place on the 12th October. In an address on the progress of the Queen's Colleges, the Lord Chancellor announced a remarkable increase in the number of the graduates and students. The numbers for 1862 were 141, for 1863, 177. The local examinations were attended by 34 pupils of various schools; of these, 18 passed. The number of students in attendance on the college classes continues to increase. The aggregate of those numbers for sessions 1861 and 1862 was 745; for sessions 1862 and 1863 it is 769.

II.—EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Harrow School—Death of Mr. Oxenham.—The death of the Rev. W. Oxenham, Lower Master of Harrow School, will be felt as a personal loss by all Harrovians. Educated at Harrow, Mr. Oxenham was appointed an assistant-master in 1826, and on the death of the Rev. H. Drury succeeded to the post

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of lower master. He was an admirable classical scholar of the type of Keate and Drury, and had probably few living superiors in an intimate knowledge of all departments of Latin versification.

The Burrelton School Case.—The Rev. A. S. Robertson and others *v.* James Keillor.—The Sheriff-substitute of Perth has pronounced an interlocutor in this case, of which the following is an abstract:—*Perth, 5th October* 1863.—Having heard parties' procurators, and made avizandum with the process, the Sheriff finds,—1*st*, That it has been shown by the charter of the Woodside Institution that the defender holds his office *ad vitam aut culpam;* 2*d*, Finds that it has not been proved by the laws of the Free Church of Scotland, with which the Institution is incorporated, that teachers in connexion with that Church hold their offices under such tenure; 3*d*, That it has not been proved that defender held his appointment under such tenure, but that his engagement was for one year certain, the engagement by consent of both parties being renewed annually; 4*th*, That the defender has been duly and regularly dismissed by the managers of the Woodside Institution from the situation of teacher thereof; 5*th*, Decerns, removing from the premises held by defender in virtue of his office, in terms of the conclusion of the action, on a charge of six days, but superseding execution until the term of Martinmas next (11th November), and finds defender liable in expenses.

British and Foreign Society's Training College, Borough Road, London.—Owing to the change of the principle of payment to Training Colleges by the Committee of Council, as described in their Minute of 21st March 1863, the Committee of the British and Foreign Society have modified the terms of admission to the Borough Road College. An entrance fee of £3 is required from all who, being successful at the Christmas examination, are admitted to the Training Colleges at the Borough Road and at Stockwell. This applies to those who have been pupil teachers, or who, not having been pupil teachers, pass the examination held by Her Majesty's Inspector at Christmas. This payment includes the whole expense to the student *for two years*, of board, instruction, laundry, and medical attendance. The cost of books and stationery devolves on the student. Suitable guarantees are required, both of the full and *bona fide* intention of those admitted to remain two years, and at the expiration of that period to follow the profession of teaching in elementary schools for the poor.

Scholarships in the Manchester Training College.—The committee of management of the Winchester Diocesan Training-school have adopted the following scheme suggested by their treasurer, the Rev. G. Sumner:—

"The Queen's scholarships having been abolished by the Committee of Council, and the Government grants being made henceforth proportionate to the success of the individual students who shall have completed a two years' course of training, and have obtained a certificate of merit after probation (see Revised Code, art 73), the committee propose to offer for competition, annually at Christmas, 15 scholarships, tenable for two years. The successful candidates will be entitled to complete their term of training free of all charges, except only the annual fee of £3 each from those who may be placed in the first class, and £5 each from those who are placed in the second class, for the use of books and apparatus. The ten candidates who shall stand next on the examination list will be admissible to a two years' course of training, upon payment at the rate of £28 per annum. And if they should obtain a certificate of merit from Her Majesty's Inspector, after the prescribed course of probation (see Revised Code, art 73), they will become entitled to receive out of the funds of the training school a bonus of £20. Other candidates for a two years' course of training will be received at the rate of £25 per annum."

A University for Wales.—The first meeting of a provisional committee

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formed for the purpose of taking steps for the establishment of Colleges and a University for Wales, on the plan of the "Queen's Colleges" and University in Ireland, was held in London, December 1, William Williams, Esq., M.P., presiding. The meeting was attended by a number of influential gentlemen who take a warm interest in the welfare of the Principality, and the discussion of the subject of a University for Wales was characterised by a high appreciation of its importance. Resolutions in favour of the proposal were unanimously passed, and an influential committee was appointed to prosecute the object. The chairman subscribed £1000 at the meeting.

Female Schools of Art.—With the sanction of the Treasury, the Committee of Council on Education propose to establish two scholarships to be held by the two most eminent female students of the Schools of Art throughout the country, the endowment for such scholarships having been provided by the fees taken for inspecting the wedding presents of their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales at the South Kensington Museum in May last.

National Education in Ireland.—Resolutions have been adopted by the Roman Catholic Bishops of Ireland condemnatory of the "mixed" principle of the Irish National Education system.

The Bishops "direct that no priest shall, after the first day of next term, send any person to be trained as a teacher, either in the Central Model School, or in any other model school, or in any way co-operate with other patrons of national schools in sending, after that date, teachers to be so trained, and that no teachers who shall be sent to be trained after that date in any model school shall be employed as such by any priest, or by his consent."

They further "have learned, with the greatest satisfaction, that in the dioceses in which model schools were introduced or upheld against the authority of the respective bishops, the measures taken to prevent the attendance of Catholic children at them have been most successful."

Education in Canada.—The annual report of the Chief Superintendent of Education shows an attendance in 1862 at the public elementary schools of 343,733 pupils in Upper Canada, and 139,474 in Lower Canada. Allowing for increase of population since the census, it is considered that this amounts to about 22 per cent. of the population of Upper Canada, and 11 per cent. of Lower Canada.

Cambridge Local Examinations.—At the annual examination, which began on 14th December, at fifteen different centres, upwards of 600 male candidates presented themselves. On this occasion there was introduced the novelty of extending the examination to girls. The experiment, set on foot by some ladies in London, was confined to the metropolis. Its success was remarkable, ninety-two candidates having there presented themselves for examination. The Universities should require no other stimulus to encourage them at once to make this feature of the examination general.

III. PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

The College of Preceptors.—At the evening meeting on October 21st, Professor Leitner read a very interesting paper on "The State of Education in Turkey, with some account of the Turkish language, laws, and customs." A meeting of the Council was held on October 24th, when sixteen new members were elected. At the same meeting it was resolved, on the motion of the treasurer, "That it should be referred to the Educational Committee to consider the expediency of memorializing the Government that it will be pleased to direct that a part of the contemplated buildings on the site of Burlington House may be set apart for the use of this Corporation." At the evening meeting, on November 18th, Monsieur E. Barbier read a paper on "International Education, with a brief account of the Colleges which it is proposed to found for its promotion and encouragement."

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Durham Branch of the National Society.—The National Society has held one of its most successful branch meetings in the New Town Hall, Durham (November 12, 1863). The Bishop of Durham in the chair. The chief speakers were the Mayor of Durham, the Rev. G. R. Moncrieff, H. M. Inspector of Schools for the Northern District, Rev. J. Barmby, Rev. C. W. King, Rev. Dr. Holden, and S. S. Warren, Esq., travelling secretary.

The local secretary (Rev. C. W. King) gave a graphic account of what had already been done in the diocese, and claimed the support of the meeting, because £10,000 of the Society's funds had already been spent in the support of schools in the neighbourhood.

In moving the *second* resolution, the Rev. G. R. Moncrieff called attention to the fact, that the resolution entrusted to him—"That to make provision for a sound religious education for the labouring classes was a national duty"—involved the general principle, rather than reference to any specific facts connected with the National Society. He felt honoured by being invited to take part in this meeting. He presumed that one reason, at least, for the invitation was the feeling of the committee, that he was in a position, from his official knowledge of the schools in the diocese, to bear testimony to the work that had been done, and to the necessity for sustained exertion. That testimony he was prepared to bear. He wished he could say that it was a doubtful matter, or a matter in which there could even be an approach to doubt, whether such necessity still existed. Of course his experience was only local: of course, also, it was limited to the schools under Government inspection. But that very limit was in itself an important fact. It told of the vast number of parishes, both among the mines of Durham and the hills of Northumberland, in which improved methods were unknown, and where children were still taught—if taught at all—in the old fashioned style of thirty years ago. There could be no greater mistake than to suppose that the battle of education was fought out, and the victory secure. So far as this diocese was concerned, he hesitated not to say that the hindrances from apathy and unconcern were well nigh as formidable as ever—that true educationists were few—and the progress therefore, however sound in quality slow in its pace, and limited in its area. Of the progress itself, he could speak more hopefully.

IV.—APPOINTMENTS.

Rev. W. H. Begbie:—Master in Clifton College, Bristol.

Rev. W. Haig Brown, M.A., late Head-Master of Kensington Proprietary Grammar School:—Head-Master of the Charterhouse School, London.

Rev. L. Campbell, late Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford:—Professor of Greek in the University of St. Andrews.

Rev. J. D. Collis, D.D., of Worcester College, and Head-Master of Bromsgrove School:—Grinfield Lecturer in the University of Oxford.

Rev. R. Cooper:—Head-Master, The College, Weston-super-Mare, Somerset.

Rev. S. T. Earles:—Head-Master, Grammar School, Halstead, Essex.

Rev. J. Ellerbeck:—Head-Master, Grammar School, Slaidburn, Yorkshire.

Henry Fawcett:—Professor of Political Economy in the University of Cambridge.

Rev. R. Holme, Fellow of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge:—Principal and Chaplain of the Greenwich Hospital School.

A. Nicolay Meyerowicz:—German Master in the High School, Edinburgh.

Rev. Capel Sewell, M.A., of Brasenose College, Oxford:—One of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

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